

The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXIX, NUMBER 4

Continuing The Historical Outlook

APRIL, 1948

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES does not accept responsibility for the views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions which appear in its pages. It provides opportunities for publication of materials which may represent divergent ideas, judgments and opinions.

EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Subscription \$2.00 a year, single numbers 30 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXIX, NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1948

The Schools and National Welfare

A. FRANKLIN ROSS

Ridgewood, New Jersey

The faith of Americans in education as a cure for national ills remains unabated from year to year. In times of crisis, the schools are either held responsible for the impending trouble, or they are regarded as the Moses to lead the people out of their difficulties. We continue to live in the atmosphere of the common school which was bequeathed to us by leaders such as Horace Mann. However, we are liable to forget that Mann did not promise quick-acting educational panaceas for social ills.

On the day that Mann closed his brilliant career as a leader at the Massachusetts bar, he wrote in his diary: "My law books are for sale. *Let the next generation be my client.*" Still, he did look upon the common school as the proper corrective for dangers confronting our republican form of government. The masters of the state, he believed, must be enlightened in virtue and in knowledge. Illiteracy, even to the extent of the inability to write one's own name, had made stump speaking a favorite method of political campaigning. About the same time, T. B. Macaulay prophesied that America would be overwhelmed by an army of barbarians, an army from within her own borders. The common school was the American answer to that dire prophecy. But the span of a hundred years or more has not led us exactly into the Elysian Fields. Although citizens do not misuse the ballot because they can neither read nor write and no one needs to be misinformed on public issues, still it is true that vast numbers are so indifferent to the privilege of the ballot that they do not take the pains even to walk to the polls. It is not lack of

information that lies at the root of our social troubles. Since the days of Socrates there has been information enough in the world to cure all our social ills.

We have "enriched programs of study" from the kindergarten to the university. Instruction in public affairs and current problems is found in study programs at nearly all levels of instruction. A little fourth grade tot, on being asked what she was looking for in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, replied: "Oh I am just working on my social slush." Teachers have such impressive programs thrust upon them that developing thinking power with which to attack the problems of life becomes a secondary matter.

No one would wish to deny that laboratory material is as necessary in teaching the social studies as it is in teaching the physical sciences. But learning to think is of more importance to the learner than ambitious solutions of social problems. It is more important to arouse and to nurture a healthy appetite for enlightenment than it is to arrive at some imaginary goal.

The *Harvard Report on Education* states that we are in danger of losing the common ground which makes for our culture, that the past and the present are part of the same unrolling scene. "We are," it states, "neglecting the inherited view of man and society." Mere information without insight, which may be another word for wisdom, will not develop character any more than donations of money will work an economic miracle. Historical enlightenment in western civilization dates back to a passion for truth and the desire of the created to know the will of the Creator. In such a program, the

home bears a heavier responsibility than the public school. For educators to blink at that fact is equivalent to hanging false lights along the shore.

Teachers collectively have been charged with failing to conform to professional standards. Dr. Francis T. Spaulding, Commissioner of Education for the State of New York, surveys the whole question in an incomparable manner in a recent issue of *The Yale Review*. Dr. Spaulding's study of the question is frankly an effort to raise teaching to a higher level of performance. Many distressing conditions in the ranks of teachers at the present time should make any contribution to the betterment of teaching thrice welcome. The flurry of teachers' strikes and threats of more to follow make the average citizen wonder whether fathers and mothers will be the next to go on strike. Undeniably, striking teachers do not present a highly edifying spectacle.

The question at issue is: "How can teaching be advanced to the status of a profession; how can teachers set up ethical standards of procedure and how enforce those standards?" Medicine, the law, and engineering are pointed to as illustrations of professions that perform the feat. It is admitted that teachers offer a special difficulty because they are, in general, government employees. They do not have the same incentive or the same opportunity to organize professionally.

Medicine and law are pointed to as typical professions, each with closely knit organizations of members, which set up rigid tests for membership. Teachers are urged to do the same, i.e., to set their qualifications for membership in their associations. If this process is carried through in a manner that commands respect, the next step, it is said, will follow naturally. The self-imposed tests will be accepted as qualification for licenses to teach.

Would such a procedure improve the quality of teaching? Even to enumerate the sore points and shortcomings of teacher service the country over would be a dreary and profitless task. At the same time, has the professional status of medicine and the law eliminated the quack doctor or the shyster lawyer?

Teaching is an ancient art or calling. Socrates drank the cup of poison rather than betray the truth he had taught. Since that day, four

centuries before the Christian era, countless hosts of teachers have borne aloft the torch of truth regardless of pay or personal suffering.

It may be impossible to create professional teacher organizations on the pattern of the medical or legal societies. It would seem as though centuries enough have passed in which to test the question. Can anyone conceive of the great teachers of the past in the role of members of a profession? It must be evident that qualities of high professional conduct do not depend upon membership in any organization. If the high standards do not exist in the inner consciousness of individual teachers they do not exist at all. Only what the teacher is, can he give.

It is said that because of lack of professional organization, teachers cannot or will not discipline members in their own ranks. Worse still, when higher authorities attempt to do the disciplining, teachers, characteristically, will uphold their errant colleagues. The reason for such an attitude, wrong as it may seem to be, in many instances, is not difficult to explain. The attitude springs from the abundant human sympathy which the good teacher must have. Without that quality, teaching would be ineffective and, to the teacher, even intolerable.

Qualities that make for good teaching, needless to say, are not identical with those of other professions. The surgeon deals with tangible materials and his success or failure is manifest immediately. The lawyer's ability is demonstrated before all eyes in the courtroom. The teacher deals with ideas and their development in the minds of the young. How or when they will mature into deeds of action neither the teacher nor any one else knows. The teacher, like the minister, performs the service of a cure of human spirits. In either case, only the inscrutable eye of omniscience knows what the effect of the treatment will be. Why did Pestalozzi doff his cap to all of the children he passed on the street? Simply because, as he said: "How do I know that there may not be a future genius under any or all of those jackets?"

It does not follow that society is helpless in choosing teachers. It does mean that the sights must be properly adjusted, that qualifying examinations are not designed to select people skilled in laying brick and mortar, and that examining boards are not only honest, but

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If the teacher is to teach good citizenship, it follows of necessity that he must possess the unglamorous qualities of good citizenship. Professor A. G. Keller in his little book, *All-Of-Us*, sets forth a kind of "grass-roots analysis" of the qualities of good citizenship. He lists the qualities as follows: (1) Industry, (2) Thrift, (3) Integrity, or plain honesty, (4) Self-restraint, (5) Liberty-loving and law-abiding, (6) Practical-mindedness.

The competent teacher will need not only the basic qualities of citizenship, but other qualities much more specific. Shall we for a moment direct attention to the sign posts pointing to good teaching rather than attempt to provide an itemized road map?

Since teachers are to be intellectual guides, it must be assumed that they will have intellectual power above the average. How may such power be discovered?

Whatever one may think about the low estate of the British Empire at the present time, it is generally conceded that the British Foreign Service has established an incomparable record. It succeeded for generations in drawing into its ranks a highly competent personnel. How was it done? What was the basis of selection? It was not done by resorting to the gibberish of short answer examinations. The service was recruited by setting tests like those used at the English universities to determine high scholarship.

Likewise, in the practice of teaching, the ability to assemble and to employ teaching material is more important than having specific information.

But there are qualities of mind required in the teacher that are more elusive, qualities that call for something like a pair of Titbottom's spectacles to reveal them. Often the term "personality" is used to sum them up. At the end of a learned lecture on approved methods to use in religious instruction, a superintendent of schools arose to remark: "If I were given the choice of giving my daughter instruction in religion under one versed in all the recent scientific methods or under a teacher of fine personality, I would choose the latter."

Some of the pupils of John Meigs of Hill School say that the mute presence of the master

as he walked down the aisle of the school chapel was as eloquent as a sermon. The boys believed in the man.

Personality and popularity cannot be used interchangeably. The latter may be purchased at too high a price. The founder of the modern school of critical historical writing, Leopold Von Ranke, was never popular as a lecturer, but the effect of his instruction is beyond computation. When Von Ranke was in the midst of his family circle, rejoicing in his children, he used to remark often: "But I have yet another family, my historical family, my pupils and my pupils' pupils." One of those pupils, Von Sybel, says: "In short, Ranke was by God's grace a teacher in head and also in heart."

Oliver Wendell Holmes, "The Yankee from Olympus," a great teacher more than anything else, declared that: "No man can actually teach another anything. All a teacher can do is to invite the would-be learner to be a partner. And then the ferment may start, provided the learner is capable of receiving the contagion." "If you want it hard enough," Holmes told his students, "you will get anything you want. But wanting is born in a man, or it isn't there and never will be." Holmes was a type of the superior teacher who stimulates the latent wants of pupils. Such teachers are lovers of the young and are incorrigible enthusiasts.

Sociologists tell us that wanting without action is abortive and stultifying, that emotions aroused without providing an outlet for expression are internally destructive. Music which arouses emotions that remain only as smoldering embers, and movies that appeal to the submerged barbarian, are destructive of personality, and are not educative. The true artist in the teacher's chair will be on the constant quest for ways of applying the truth that is taught. Barrett, the inspired teacher of Horace Mann, having discovered the consuming ambition of his pupil for learning, said: "Horace, you must go to college." The sequel to that teaching makes the brightest page in the history of education in the western world.

It is said of George Washington Carver that he prayed fervently to be liberated. But Carver confesses that his prayers had no effect until they got down into his heels. The true teacher will put prayers into acts.

The Study of History¹

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WHAT HISTORY IS

A. THE "OLD" AND THE "NEW" HISTORY

The word "history" has been variously defined. Until a generation or so ago its meaning was more or less restricted to a consideration of "past politics." In general, it formerly emphasized the political developments of mankind, often devoting much space to wars and military campaigns. It placed undue weight on chronology, and looked upon the past as something to be memorized rather than to be understood. This kind of history is commonly referred to as the "old history."

In recent times, however, historians have broadened the basis of history by including material of an economic, social, and cultural nature. Instead of concentrating primarily on political topics, they now pay more attention to other aspects of man's development through the ages, particularly to his achievements in art, literature, and science. By telling something about his everyday life, his social classes and institutions, his religious and educational activities, they strive to give a more comprehensive and significant—not to say more interesting—portrayal of his past. Less stress is placed on wars and battles, but more on their underlying causes and results. Likewise, there is less emphasis on the mere recital of dates. Finally, the past is considered as something that is to be understood rather than to be memorized. A distinguished American historian, James Harvey Robinson, applied the term "the new history" to this broader interpretation of man's past.

While historians are in agreement that history should embrace more than "past politics," there has been some difference of opinion among them concerning its exact limits. Some would include "every trace and vestige of everything that man has done and thought on the earth!" That is quite an order! Others would try to delimit history in one way or another, usually by weaving all secondary topics around a cen-

tral core of either political or economic or social developments. Incidentally, the historian is not alone in experiencing difficulties in his efforts to demarcate the exact boundaries of his field. There are similar disagreements among political scientists, sociologists, economists, and others. As a matter of fact, it is often difficult to point out where one subject ends and another begins. The simple fact is that all knowledge is inter-related.

Without attempting to discuss the various schools of historiography, the beginner is urged to familiarize himself with some representative definitions of history by several leading historians. In doing so, he should be able to obtain a better picture of the general scope of history, thereby enabling him to formulate his own definition.

B. SOME REPRESENTATIVE DEFINITIONS OF HISTORY

(1) History may be regarded as actuality, record, knowledge, and thought. It differs from the systematic social sciences, such as politics and economics, in the time depth with which it deals. . . .

As a *record*, history consists of the signs, symbols, monuments, documents, and papers that convey to posterity the information respecting the actuality of the past, which has been wilfully preserved or has naturally survived the ravages of time. These are the materials or sources from which written history as knowledge and thought is prepared.

As *knowledge*, history is a collection of facts verified, authenticated, and generally agreed upon. George Washington was the first president of the United States under the Constitution; John Adams succeeded him; and Thomas Jefferson was inaugurated in 1801.

As *thought*, history is the selection, arrangement, and interpretation of facts taken from records and from accumulated knowledge of history as actuality. All facts are not

¹ This is the first of a series of articles that treat the study of history. (Ed.)

included in any history; those which are included do not select themselves. They are chosen and ordered by the historian with reference to some frame of ideas, purposes, and philosophy which he has in mind, more or less consciously. This thought may be large, generous, universal in range; or small, provincial, and personal in nature, but it is always present in written history even though the author may deny it.

These divisions into actuality, record, knowledge, and thought are not absolute, of course, but they are substantial. Observers in the past who have recorded events transpiring about them for the information of coming times have not always been content to mirror exactly (if possible) the events themselves, but have often mingled their own thoughts with their description of events. On the other hand, many writers of history of our own generation have put little or no thought into their work, being content to copy others or fit fragments of older histories together with the aid of scissors and pastepot. Yet for practical purposes it is important to keep in mind the distinction between history as actuality, as record, as knowledge, and as thought—important, that is, for any understanding of the nature of history.²

(2) For history is no more than things said and done in the past. It is as simple as that; and we might as well omit the word "past," since everything said and done is already in the past as soon as it is said or done. Done, but not done *with*. We have to remember many things said and done in order to live our lives intelligently; and so far as we remember things said and done we have knowledge of history, for that is what historical knowledge is—*memory of things said and done*. Thus everyone has some knowledge of history, and it is quite essential that everyone should have, since it is only by remembering something of the past that we can anticipate something of the future. Please note that I do not say *predict* the future. We cannot predict the future, but we can *anticipate* it—we can look forward to it and in some sense prepare for it. Now if memory of some things said and done is necessary, it seems that memory of

more things ought to be better. The more we remember of things said and done (if they be the right things for our purpose), the better we can manage our affairs today, and the more intelligently we can prepare for what is coming to us tomorrow and next year and all our lives.³

(3) Turning to the pages of a history of the world, we note that it deals with all man's social activities, economic, political, educational, artistic, and religious. It describes them, however, not in a state of repose, but of movement and change. In this change, our attention is drawn, not to what repeats itself, but to what is new, what has never happened before and can never happen again in the same way. From all this it is evident that the historian is concerned with tracing *the unique evolution of man in his activities as a social being*, the unique life record of humanity. If this be history, then history cannot "repeat itself," there cannot be "historical laws" for a law is a generalization and a generalization assumes repetition.

It is clear, then, that *history deals with past social facts*, but it is important to note that *all past social facts are not necessarily historical facts*. The terms historical and social are not synonymous. A past social fact becomes a historical fact when it has been made a part of historical synthesis, for *historical, when applied to human affairs, signifies nothing less than a certain logical way of looking at and organizing past social facts*. When our attention is directed toward the *uniqueness, the individuality* of past social facts, when they interest because of their importance for *the unique evolution of man in his activities as a social being*, in selecting the facts and in grouping them into a complex, evolving whole, we employ the historical method; the result of our work is history.

If, on the contrary, we are interested in *what past social facts have in common*, in the way in which *social facts repeat themselves*, if our purpose is to form *generalizations, or laws* concerning social activities, we employ another logical method, the method of the natural sciences. We select our facts not for their individuality or for the importance of

² Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), pp. 50f.

³ Carl L. Becker, *Modern History* (New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1931), Introduction, v-vi.

their individuality for a complex whole, but for what each fact has in common with others and *the synthesis is not a complex, unique whole, but a generalization in which no trace of the individuality of the past social fact remains.* The result of our work is sociology, not history. Thus the work of the historian supplements that of the sociologist. *The historian is interested in quality, individuality, uniqueness; the sociologist in quantity, in generalization, in repetition.*⁴

(4) In its amplest meaning history includes every trace and vestige of everything that man has done and thought on the earth. It may aspire to follow the fate of nations or it may depict the habits and emotions of the most obscure individual. Its sources of information extend from the rude flint hatchets of Chelles to this morning's newspaper. It is the vague and comprehensive science of past human affairs. We are within its bounds whether we decipher a mortgage on an Assyrian tile, estimate the value of the Diamond Necklace, or describe the over-short pastry to which Charles V was addicted to his undoing. The tragic reflections of Eli's daughter-in-law, when she learned of the discomfiture of her people at Ebenezer, are history; so are the provisions of the Magna Charta, the origin of the doctrine of transubstantiation, the fall of Santiago, the difference between a black friar and a white friar, and the certified circulation of the *New York World* on February 1 of the current year. Each fact has its interest and importance; all have been carefully recorded.⁵

(5) For the word "history" has two meanings. It may mean either the record of events or events themselves. We call Cromwell a "maker of history" although he never wrote a line of it. We even say that the historian merely records the history which kings and statesmen produce. History in such instances is obviously not the narrative but the thing that awaits narration. The same name is given to both the object of the study and the study itself. The confusion is unfortunate. Sociology, we know, deals with society; biol-

ogy with life; but history deals with history. It is like juggling with words.

Of the two meanings, the larger one is comparatively recent. The idea that events and people are historic by reason of any quality of their own, even if no one has studied or written upon them, did not occur to the ancients. To them the history was the other thing—the inquiry and statement, not the thing to be studied or recorded. It was not until modern times that the phenomena themselves were termed history. The history of a people originally meant the research and narrative of a historian, not the evolution of a nation. It meant a work dealing with the subject, not the subject itself. And this is logically as well as historically the more accurate use of the word. Things are never historic in themselves. They can be perpetuated out of the dead past only in two ways: either as part of the ever-moving present—as institutions, art, science, etc.—things timeless or universal; or in that imaginative reconstruction which it is the special office of the historian to provide.

This distinction must be insisted upon if we are to have any clear thinking upon the history of history. For obviously in this phrase we are using "history" only in its original and more limited meaning. We are dealing with historians, their methods, their tools and their problems; not with the so-called "makers of history" except as materials for the historian—not with battles and constitutions and "historical events," in and for themselves, but only where the historian has treated them. And it is the treatment rather than the events themselves which mainly interests us.⁶

C. HISTORY AS A SOCIAL SCIENCE

Together with economics, geography, political science, sociology, and related subjects, history belongs to the social sciences or social studies, one of the four large fields of knowledge, the other three of which are the physical sciences (physics, chemistry, mathematics, geology), the biological sciences (botany and zoology), and the humanities (art, literature, languages, philosophy). While it would prove advanta-

⁴ Fred Morrow Fling, *The Writing of History* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1926), pp. 15-17.

⁵ James Harvey Robinson, *The New History* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927), p. 1.

⁶ James T. Shotwell, *Introduction to the History of History* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1923), pp. 2-5.

geous for the beginner in history to know something about each of these four broad fields, he should familiarize himself rather intimately with the social studies. Not only should he have a good picture of the general contents of each, but he should know how all of them might contribute to history.

The following definitions of the leading social sciences might prove helpful to the beginner:

1. *Economics* tells one how man makes a living; or, to use the language of the economist, it deals with the production, consumption, and distribution of goods. It discusses such topics as money, banking, finance, taxation, manufacturing, industry, agriculture, and commerce.
2. *Geography* tells one how the natural environment influences the activity of man and how he adapts himself to it. It emphasizes such topics as the influence of climate, soil, and topography on man.
3. *Political science* tells one about the various political institutions man has devised to govern himself and others. It embraces such topics as the state, political parties, political theories, public administration, comparative government, and international relations.
4. *Sociology* is somewhat more difficult to define, since few sociologists agree as to the exact scope of their subject. In general, it is the study of human interaction, and therefore is much more inclusive than the other social studies. It makes generalizations on social behavior and social change, and attempts to find underlying laws and principles controlling their behavior. It stresses such topics as the family, marriage, divorce, poverty, delinquency, punishment, and other social problems.

Since all of the foregoing subjects, together with their subdivisions, deal with various aspects of man's activities, there is bound to be a great deal of overlapping. Social scientists frequently make use of one another's material. The economist, the political scientist, and the sociologist often turn to the pages of history for reference or for corroboration of their statements and conclusions. The historian, in turn, also borrows from the other social scientists. For example, in the writing of political history, he might very well lean upon the find-

ings of political scientists.

Although history is closely related to the other social studies, there is an important difference in point of view between them. To quote Professor E. M. Hulme:

All the other social studies are comparative. Their interest is in law or in type. Their method is abstraction and generalization. History is interested in the individual, whether it be an individual nation, or church, or sect, or revolution, or person; and its method is to tell the story of that individual. Sociology is, for instance, interested in divorce as a social institution. It shows us that the number of divorces in our country rose from 27 in each 100,000 in 1867, to 163 in 1928; and it shows that of these divorces 66.6 per cent have been granted to women, and that at the present time only 12 per cent of the cases are contested. It (sociology) is concerned with the causes of divorce, and with its general consequences. History, however, is interested chiefly in particular divorces, and most of all in those that are of sufficient importance to be included in the story of the essential thoughts and deeds of men. It is interested, for instance, in the divorce of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon because of its great importance in the history of England. Both history and sociology are concerned with the life of man as man. Sociology seeks to arrive at generalizations and laws in regard to human nature and society, while history narrates and interprets concrete events.⁷

D. HISTORY AS A HUMANITY

A few of our leading historians, however, especially those who have been steeped in the classical traditions of education, prefer to classify history as one of the humanities. They insist that it is no social science at all, but a branch of literature, and as such should be placed alongside the belles-lettres. They contend that the eminent historians are remembered for their creative imagination and their mastery of presentation and style—in short, for their artistic ability. They feel that the historian is in much more desirable and elevating company among artists, writers, poets, and philosophers than among the more prosaic,

⁷ *History and its Neighbors* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1942), p. 156.

often unimaginative, and statistically minded social scientists.

The affinities of history with literature are clearly pointed out by Professor A. F. Follard, the distinguished English historian:

The content of both is much the same, and the difference lies in the method of treatment. In history we deal with the development of man's action as well as of his thought, and consider both in close connection with the conditions of the age in which he lived. To the student of history the essential thing is not merely the thought itself, but the relation of the thought to the circumstances of the time; while the student of literature contemplates the thoughts expressed therein apart from their historical setting or development. Nevertheless the study of literature is an indispensable element in the study of history because action is the effect as well as the cause of ideas; and a study of literature is one of the best correctives of the unintelligent conception of history as merely a matter of facts and dates.⁸

The argument whether history is a humanity or a social science is an academic one, and need not worry the beginner at all. He is bound to profit from a study of history, whether he views it as a social study or a humanity.

II

WHY STUDY HISTORY?

Since beginners in history are sometimes very skeptical about the value of history, they hesitate to take additional courses in this field. Remarks like the following have been made frequently by incoming college freshmen:

"No more history for me! Two years in high school were enough! Too many dates and battles to remember! Give me something more interesting and stimulating!"

"I've had American history for two years—one year in elementary and another in high school. That's sufficient for me! What good will it do me to know what happened in Europe and Asia many centuries ago? Who cares anyhow?"

"History might be an interesting subject, but it isn't practical. What can you do with it after you graduate? Oh, yes, it might be all right to take some courses in history if you plan to

teach, but as for me, give me something that is practical, something like accounting, business management, advertising, or engineering."

The foregoing statements, of course, reflect the greatest misconceptions concerning the ultimate goal of history. Students who continue to identify history with the memorization of dates and battles must have the "old" history in mind. But how shall one answer students who insist upon taking "practical" subjects? History, to be sure, has no utilitarian value for the average student, except perhaps for those who plan to teach it. Even for the latter it offers only a meagre remuneration. The teaching of history cannot be recommended as a ready means to make money.

From the foregoing it is clear that history should be classified as a *cultural* rather than practical subject. Without attempting to challenge the value of certain practical and vocational college courses, as President Robert Maynard Hutchins of the University of Chicago has repeatedly done, the student should realize that two of the chief aims of college are to acquaint him with the cultural heritage of mankind and to make him, if at all possible, a thinking and intelligent citizen. It is the function of the college to help him understand the world in which he lives and to develop his intellectual capacities, so that he will be better prepared to deal with the many grave problems confronting modern civilization. A deep and broad education is necessary to achieve those ends, requiring some familiarity with the four divisions of knowledge—the biological sciences, the physical sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. Of all subjects, perhaps, history more than any other acquaints the student with the cultural inheritance of mankind, thereby helping him to gain a liberal education.

The following paragraphs summarize some of the chief reasons for studying history:

1. It will give one a better understanding of modern civilization by explaining how our institutions—whether economic, political, social, or religious—came into existence and what historical forces are at work in modifying them. It furnishes answers to innumerable questions concerning various aspects of life. Why has the United States a federal government? What is the origin of American democratic ideals? How has big business come to be? What are the

⁸ *Factors in Modern History* (London: Constable and Company, 1932), p. 3.

roots of communism and fascism? Under what circumstances has religious liberty developed in America? For answers to these questions, as well as to many others, we must turn to the pages of history for enlightenment.

2. It helps one to interpret current events. Important developments are daily occurring in Europe, Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the United States. It is not enough to know what is happening in various parts of the world, but *why* they are taking place. History will often furnish the *why*. In recent years the world has been passing through many serious crises, all of which can be better understood in the light of history.

3. It provides an excellent background for other courses. For the student who plans to study law, a knowledge of Roman history, the constitutional and legal history of England, and the constitutional history of the United States will prove very beneficial. For the student of art and literature a historical background is well-nigh indispensable. Even for the student of science, a knowledge of the history of science should be very helpful.

4. It tends to sharpen one's critical faculties by providing many opportunities to make fruitful historical comparisons as well as to weigh and sift historical evidence. Such experience will make it much easier for one to detect the errors, half-truths, exaggerations, and misstatements to be found in numerous articles, books, and newspapers. Citizens who exercise their critical faculties seldom fall prey to demagoguery.

5. It often tends to develop a sense of sympathy and toleration for other classes, nations, and religions. Prejudices and ill-feelings, often rooted in ignorance, are likely to disappear with a knowledge of the historical background of these groups. The good history student is able to place himself "in the shoes" of other people, so to speak, and to think and feel as they do. In doing so he cultivates an attitude of tolerance and understanding, so imperative in our day, when large sections of the world's population are steeped in hatred and bigotry. Good feelings among nations as well as within nations are a prerequisite for the reconstruction of the world.

6. It frequently stimulates a greater interest in the finer things of life by introducing us to the writings of the famous philosophers, sci-

entists, and statesmen. It points out to us the masterpieces of the eminent painters, musicians, and other artists. In short, it acquaints us with our cultural heritage. Students who have cultivated an interest in the finer things need never worry about what to do with their leisure time.

SHOULD HISTORY TEACH LESSONS?

Ever since the days of Herodotus and Thucydides, the famous Greek historians of antiquity, history has been frequently taught for the purpose of teaching lessons of all kinds—moral, political, social, military, and others. According to this view, every movement and period of history contains valuable lessons for future guidance, both for individuals and nations, if only the historians are able to discover them. In other words, nations and groups, like individuals, might profit from the mistakes of the past. For example, may one not learn from the decline of the Roman Empire how to avoid the disintegration of the United States? Would not a study of the shortcomings of former peace treaties teach one how to lay the foundations of an enduring peace?

Not only have many historians of the past attempted to make history serve didactic functions, but even today many theologians, politicians, philosophers, editors, reformers, educators, military experts, radio commentators, and numerous others often refer to the "lessons of history"—usually to support their own particular views. The theologian cites illustrations from history to prove that wickedness leads to disaster and that righteousness ultimately triumphs over evil. The politician, too, seeks historical examples to justify his course of action. How often have not opposing political orators during the heat of a campaign called upon the founding fathers to condemn the policies of their adversaries and to sanction their own! It is not uncommon for military commentators, when discussing the campaigns of the past war, to refer to the "lessons" of former battles and naval engagements. To an ardent socialist the experiences of mankind teach that the adoption of some form of socialism is inevitable. Even Hitler and Mussolini tried to justify their tyrannical regimes on historical grounds!

The historian of today is inclined to look with suspicion on all attempts to read lessons into history, largely because they tend to reveal, in

so many cases, a glaring lack of historical knowledge and perspective. By tearing facts out of their historical pattern and conveniently rearranging them to support a given thesis, history can be interpreted to prove and teach almost anything. Thus the institution of slavery has been warmly defended and bitterly assailed on historical grounds. Prior to World War II many isolationists and interventionists were convinced that the lessons of American history substantiated the soundness of their respective viewpoints. Many attempts have been made to deduce lessons from the tragic collapse of France. Conservatives everywhere have referred to it as an object lesson to show what dire calamity befalls a country which adopts "New Deal" legislation. Liberals, on the other hand, point to it as a shining example of the inevitable ruin that confronts a nation when the fascist-minded conservative leaders obstruct needed social reform. As a matter of fact, every controversial issue of the present is both supported and condemned in the light of history. To the optimist, the lessons of history clearly indicate that man is steadily progressing to a higher and better form of society. To the pessimist, however, they prove beyond the shadow of a doubt that he is heading straight for destruction.

In view of the widespread chaos and confusion in which the world finds itself today, a good case could be made for the thesis that history teaches no lessons at all. After experiencing hundreds of bloody and destructive wars in the past, mankind has not thus far learned to settle its disputes without periodically resorting to force and weapons.

It is neither the business of the historian to read lessons into history nor to predict the future course of events, even though "he might anticipate them," to use the words of Carl Becker. His main function is to portray the past as sincerely, objectively, and truthfully as possible, without consciously injecting his own bias and prejudices. Complete objectivity and impartiality, to be sure, remain ideals, since the writings of the foremost historians reflect a varying degree of subjectivity, and in many cases are tempered by the prevailing spirit of their age. In general, the historian should be satisfied if he succeeds in giving his readers and students a deeper comprehension of the histor-

ical factors and forces at work in shaping our civilization.

SHOULD HISTORY TEACH PATRIOTISM?

The belief that history should inculcate patriotism is not a new one. Every nation has regarded it as an effective means whereby to arouse a sense of loyalty to its institutions and to engender a spirit of nationalism. In the United States, too, American history is taught to instill patriotic sentiments. That is the main reason why it has been a required subject in the vast majority of schools. Moreover, some of the patriotic organizations have repeatedly urged all teachers of American history to organize their material in such a way as to inspire patriotic feelings among their students. Some of the more zealous members of these organizations would favor the complete elimination of all historical facts that might lead the young student to question the integrity of American institutions and leadership. Hence they would only emphasize the brighter side of American national development and portray all of the noted leaders as men of sterling character and stainless conduct. They even would interpret the American Revolution as a spontaneous and unanimous uprising against the tyranny of King George III. They would likewise have us believe that the adoption of the Constitution met with little or no opposition from the American people. Interpretations of this kind, of course, are contrary to historical facts.

No one will deny that the teaching of patriotism in its highest sense—the love of home and country—is a worthy objective, nor that a knowledge of American history will make for more loyal and responsible citizenship. The fact that many of our citizens are totally and woefully unfamiliar with the history of the American struggle for freedom and democracy is a matter of grave national concern. Justice Robert H. Jackson correctly called the seeming indifference to American history "an ominous symptom of waning vigor of American democracy."⁹ While there should be no objection, therefore, to greater emphasis on American history, there can be no justification for the practice of distorting the facts of history in

⁹ Address delivered before State Bar of Texas, San Antonio, July 3, 1942.

order to make the students patriotic. To do so involves several great dangers. In the first place, there is the danger that many students, after having glanced at American history through rose-colored glasses, will be disillusioned and skeptical upon discovering the truth for themselves. Moreover, there is real danger that history itself will become sheer propaganda. It is interesting to observe that, in Fascist Italy, Nazi Germany, and Communist Russia, history has been reduced to propaganda by the dictators for the sole purpose of eulogizing their rulers, their parties, and their beliefs. Under no condition should such Fascist and Communist methods be adopted in a democracy like our own, the very existence of which depends on an alert, well-informed, and intelligent citizenry. Indeed, the historian can make no greater contribution to good citizenship and democracy, as well as to the preservation of our free institutions, than by presenting the past as truthfully and impartially as possible.

III

KINDS OF HISTORICAL MATERIAL

Our knowledge of history is largely acquired by reading textbooks, biographies, autobiographies, diaries, memoirs, articles in encyclopaedias and historical journals, newspapers, magazines, specialized studies, correspondence of leading men and women, chronicles, annals, and various miscellaneous documents. Much of this material includes *original* or *primary sources*, but most of it consists of *secondary material*. In general, the words *original sources* (sometimes simply called *sources*), refer to all material remains and written documents which in one way or another throw direct light on the life and historical developments of a certain age. The material remains might include coins, roads, bridges, monuments, buildings, utensils, and other objects. The documents might consist of treaties, constitutions, decrees, charters, ordinances, statutes, proceedings of parliament, judicial decisions, correspondence, various reports of eye-witnesses, and other records. *Secondary sources*, or *derived sources*, refer to various interpretations and representations based directly upon primary sources, such as are usually found in textbooks. If such representations are based directly upon secondary sources, as they often are, they are sometimes called *tertiary sources*.

Most important for the historian, of course, are the primary sources, without which we would be unable to reconstruct the past. Since they form the basis for his interpretations of individuals, movements, and periods, he often devotes much of his time to their selection and evaluation. Obviously, an abundance of such sources greatly facilitates his efforts at reconstruction; while a lack or scarcity of them handicaps him severely, often explaining why certain periods of history, such as the earliest centuries of ancient times, are more difficult to interpret than others. Valuable collections of sources are preserved in various archives and libraries, such as the National Archives and Library of Congress, both of which are located in Washington, D. C.

For the biographer, too, original sources are extremely important. If he wishes to interpret the character and contributions of some famous leaders of the past, he must not only familiarize himself with the age in which they lived, but with all of the sources that help to shed light on their achievements and personalities. These sources might include the correspondence of the leaders, the writings and diaries of contemporaries, newspaper articles, and other material. Unfortunately, many modern biographers do not take the time to make a thorough investigation of all available sources. Hence their biographies are quite valueless from the historical viewpoint.

For sheer lack of time, the general student of history, including the beginner, must be satisfied to confine his reading largely to works of a secondary nature. Since the mass of accumulated primary source material, even for a smaller period, is so large and unlimited, he has no other choice than to read the conclusion and interpretations of various authorities on special fields of history. Moreover, it requires considerable training and experience, as well as a knowledge of specialized skills, to get the most out of original sources, which often appear in other languages. To establish the authenticity of documents, for example, it is necessary to know the technique of internal and external criticism, both of which require additional study and experience.

Even the professional historian must frequently rely on the secondary works of other specialists, a reassuring fact for the beginner

in history. To be sure, he might be thoroughly familiar with the sources of his own field; but as soon as he leaves this field to study another, he becomes increasingly dependent on the secondary works of other scholars. The writer of a textbook, as a rule, draws heavily on the researches of many historical investigators. He merely summarizes their conclusions. Thus the author of a textbook on modern European history will supplement his own meagre knowledge of the sources by incorporating the interpretations of numerous authorities on various specialized fields.

While it is true that the general student of history devotes most of his time to the reading of secondary works, he should be encouraged to become familiar with some of the important

source books. He will often discover them to be more interesting and stimulating than textbooks. He will also find them to be more profitable, since they give a better insight into the period under consideration. It is far better to read them than to read about them. Such books as Machiavelli's *The Prince*, Benvenuto Cellini's *Autobiography*, and Castiglione's *The Courtier*, among many others, will help him to capture the spirit of the Renaissance. Under certain favorable conditions it is even advisable for the teacher to give his students some actual training in the analysis and interpretation of documents. Experience of this kind will aid students to formulate their own conclusions on the basis of documentary evidence.

The Marshall Plan

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As a result of the emphasis upon the economic and humanitarian aspects of the Marshall Plan at countless public forums in the United States since Secretary of State George Marshall's Harvard University address, it is possible that even some teachers of social science may forget that the Marshall Plan, whether by purpose or circumstances, is also an instrument of power politics.

The daily press and popular periodicals have been somewhat more blunt than the Secretary of State in stating the political implications of the European Recovery Plan. Mr. Marshall's rather moderate statements may be explained, however, by the fact that the United States still maintains correct diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union and the Secretary of State's utterances must reflect the official government attitude.

In spite of the relative mildness of Mr. Marshall's public remarks, it must be admitted that there has been a considerable re-orientation of American policy toward the Soviet Union in the period since the selection of a military leader to head the Department of State. This does not imply that Mr. Marshall is the sole author of this trend in foreign policy, but rather

that he is suited by training and temperament for carrying it out.

The "new look" in American foreign policy is necessitated by the re-allocation of power resulting from World War II. Whereas before the war the balance of power was based on an equilibrium involving seven Great Powers, in the postwar world it hinges on the uneasy relations of the two so-called Super Powers. Both the Soviet Union and the United States, therefore, are apparently seeking a favorable balance of power for themselves and their satellites in an equilibrium not yet established.

It would seem to be these political implications of the Marshall Plan that have brought about unilateral implementation of the European Recovery Plan by the United States. A number of competent authorities in the field of American foreign policy and international affairs have expressed the belief that the Marshall Plan could have been implemented collectively through the United Nations. If the plan were purely economic and humanitarian, it would possibly have been developed by the United Nations. It was certainly political considerations which led the United States to by-pass the United Nations and the Soviet

Union to favor exploration of a collective approach to European reconstruction.

Much has been made of the fact that the Soviet Union was given the opportunity to participate in the Marshall Plan, but such participation actually became impossible when the United Nations was by-passed. Whatever its economic needs, the Soviet Union could not have come as a common suppliant to the United States without suffering severe loss of prestige as a Great Power. Furthermore, had the Soviet Union brought itself to the begging point, there could well have been some doubt as to whether or not the American Congress would have appropriated funds for the economic rehabilitation of the Soviet Union.

Because of the political implications of the Marshall Plan, the Soviet counter-attack to it must be studied without hysteria, as a normal development, as something to be met rationally rather than emotionally. The establishment of the Nine Power Cominform and political unrest in Czechoslovakia, Italy, and France were part of the Soviet answer to the European Recovery Plan.

From the Russian point of view, in order to prevent a deterioration of the balance of power to a point where the Soviet Union's security would be hopelessly compromised, the hold on the satellite states of Eastern Europe had to be strengthened. This meant that moderate leaders had to be forced out of office, brought to trial or forced to flee, and Communist leadership within these countries encouraged. If the Soviet Union was to maintain hope of establishing a favorable balance of power for itself and the Eastern Bloc it had to seek to create a Communist France and a Communist Italy. Thus, assured of control over, or cooperation with, most of Western Europe, the Soviet Union's security position in the world would be considerably enhanced.

Since the outcome of the struggle for balance of power between the United States and the Soviet Union may well be in doubt, it is important to assess American policy with regard to the Soviet Union and the Soviet policy toward the United States.

Probably the best summation of American policy, within the framework of which the Marshall Plan is intended to operate, was contained in the article by Mr. "X" in the July,

1947, issue of *Foreign Affairs*. American policy seeks to increase the strains under which Soviet policy operates to the end that tendencies will be promoted which will lead eventually to the collapse or withering of Soviet power. An economically healthy Western Europe, under the aegis of the United States, is calculated to create unrest in an Eastern Europe which exists on a much lower standard of living. By this means, if American policy succeeds, satisfactory results will be achieved without war.

The Soviet policy is the American policy in reverse. It seeks to increase the strains under which American policy operates to the end that there will be a break-up or mellowing of American power. The Soviet policy is seemingly founded on the belief that a postwar depression in America will open the way for the Soviet Union to gain control over most of Western Europe. As Marshall Plan aid came to an end, with the American economic collapse, it is anticipated that resultant chaotic economic conditions in Western Europe would bring a rapid rise of Communist leaders to power. It would be possible, under such circumstances, for the Soviet to achieve satisfactory results without war.

Although each nation hopes to achieve its goal by peaceful means, which is reassuring to both Soviet and American citizens, it must be noted that the conflicting interests at stake are vital and that a favorable balance of power can be achieved by the foregoing policies by either the Soviet Union or the United States but not by both. The cause of the current tension in international politics, therefore, is apparent.

Since power politics knows few, if any, morals, it is to be expected that the Great Powers will utilize for their struggle whatever tools are at their disposal. Nations which possess military power, but not wealth, are likely to use force rather than economic weapons to protect their security position in vital areas. Governments able to muster only minority support in the United Nations are likely to resort to the veto in lieu of votes. It is quite possible that the United States will approach the question of international morals with decreasing idealism as it plays the role of a Super Power in the drama of power politics.

World peace in our time is probably dependent upon the complete success of the

American policy, or a complete success of the policy of the Soviet Union, or a concurrent realization by both powers of the need for a reciprocal return to a collective search for peace. It would seem that any more or less permanent peace could result only from collective action, through development of the United Nations or the establishment of an even stronger form of world government. However, it would seem that the present trial of strength by power politics must run its course before

an honest effort for cooperation through the United Nations can be attempted.

In the meantime, because of the stage of development in Soviet-American relations, brought on in some measure by ourselves, through insistence upon unilateral aid to Western Europe, rapid passage by Congress of a financially and administratively adequate version of the Marshall Plan has become a political necessity. Otherwise, the policy of Mr. "X," to which we have been already committed, cannot have a reasonable chance of success.

Andrew Jackson, Representative of American Frontier Democracy

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Andrew Jackson, the American frontiersman, became one of America's most popular presidents. His predecessors in the presidency, for nearly forty years, had come from two states, Virginia and Massachusetts. Jacksonian democracy of the 1830's is considered by many as America's third revolution, in the development of democracy and the emergence of the common man. Jefferson's democracy is often referred to as the second revolution because of its emphasis upon the principles of equality and consideration for the people. The first revolution was the War for Independence from England. The common people came into power, under the leadership of Andrew Jackson, as a result of gaining the right of suffrage.

Andrew Jackson, Our Seventh President. "I do hope," Mrs. Jackson wrote to her niece, "they will leave Mr. Jackson alone. He is not a well man and never will be unless they allow him to rest. He has done his share for the country. How little time has he had to himself or his own interests in the thirty years of our wedded life! In all that time he has not spent one-fourth of his days under his own roof. The rest of the time away, travelling, holding court, at the capital of the country, in camp, fighting its battles, or treating with the Indians. Mercy knows what."

Andrew Jackson, who was elected President

in 1828 by twice the number of votes for his opponent, John Quincy Adams, came to the White House a sad and heart-broken man. His beloved wife, Rachel, whom he loved second only to his country, had died shortly after his election and before he assumed the presidency. The slander and bitterness of the campaign, which had brought her name into it, had distressed him.

Daniel Webster, his contemporary and the powerful Congressional leader, commented about Jackson's inaugural: "Today we have had the inauguration. A monstrous crowd is in the city. I never saw anything like it before. Persons have come five hundred miles to see General Jackson, and they really seem to think that the country is rescued from some frightful danger." The inauguration was democratic. Thousands shouted when their leader appeared to speak to them. Thousands turned with inspired reverence toward this American frontiersman, whom they had elevated to the highest office in the land.

At the reception in the White House, the "mob" made a dash for the refreshments. There was considerable damage done by this typical, unorganized, and exultant group of people. Many of Jackson's enemies, and the conservative leaders, were alarmed. Comments and writings remind us of the reactions to Jeffer-

son's rise to power in 1801, almost thirty years before. Many people felt that "King Mob," which was growing in power, would bring the destruction of our government and our country. But American democracy and the American Republic are greater than any one person, any one section, or any one group. Democracy had spoken; the people were gaining power. Other countries and other peoples may have difficulty understanding us. They feel that our political campaigns are bitter; that we are divided. But after our elections, and after the people have spoken at the polls, we Americans "level off" and carry on.

The rather unexpected charm, manners, and dignity of Andrew Jackson, the President, impressed many persons, who had doubted his ability to do justice to the high office to which he had been elected. Jackson's force and leadership were recognized—he felt that the President should exert his authority, and achieve results for the people.

President Jackson was sixty-two years of age, thin, and taut when he became President. He carried a scar from a British lieutenant's sword, and two bullets, the result of duels. His characteristics might include: uncouthness, straightforwardness, brusqueness, and relentless drive and patriotism. Jackson was the chosen leader of the common people, who had confidence, independence, optimism, and faith in democracy and in the future of the American Republic.

Attitude as Chief Executive. President Andrew Jackson assumed the same creed and leadership which he had asserted when he was General Andrew Jackson, in charge of troops in Florida, Alabama, and New Orleans. He believed that a leader should really rule and govern. His creed included: faith in the common man; and equality in politics, economic life, and social activity. Jackson seemed to fear, distrust, and even hate the special privilege, business monopolies, and economic interests of the East. His fight on this section and these economic groups was apparent. The farmers, frontiersmen, planters, shopkeepers—the "little people" in the West and in the other sections, too—were his supporters. The working people of the cities were also his followers.

Democracy had been developing, especially in the West, and also in the other sections. More persons could vote than ever before; can-

didates were nominated in conventions, as the undemocratic caucus was giving way to more power by the people, with less party domination. Most judges were elected. Debtors were given an opportunity to defend themselves. The sale of public lands was encouraged; and the eastern control of banking was criticized. The eastern section and its leaders were fearful of the extension of rights to the people, whom they did not feel to be capable of governing themselves.

Jackson was indeed a general in the White House. Perhaps his strong leadership, which caused him to be called, "King Andrew," was due to his opinion that Congress and the government were in the hands of the rich and vested interests of business. He consulted a small group of friends, more than he did his official cabinet. This small, inner group or circle, was known as his "Kitchen Cabinet," and it received much criticism.

His Veto of the Bank Bill. Congress had chartered the Second Bank of the United States in 1816 for twenty years. It was felt that the bank would give the country a uniform and stable currency. The institution was privately owned, with government deposits of about ten million dollars, and a capitalization of thirty-five million. Its profits were quite large for Jackson's time.

In addition to its main office in Philadelphia, the bank had branches in many towns and cities. All funds of the national government were deposited with it. The government had one-fifth interest in the bank, but moneyed interests were really gaining great profits. Jackson felt that the government was making special interest and privilege in the East too strong. He maintained that Biddle and others were gaining too great a monopoly, partly at the expense of the westerners, who borrowed from the bank. When a bill to extend the life of the bank was passed by Congress, Jackson vetoed it.

Jackson's veto message of 1832 stated: "It is to be regretted that the rich and powerful too often bend the acts of government to their selfish purposes. . . . When the laws undertake. . . to make the rich richer and the potent more powerful, the humble members of society. . . the farmers, mechanics, and laborers—who have neither the time nor the means of secur-

ing like favors to themselves, have a right to complain. . . If we cannot at once. . . make our government what it ought to be, we can at least take a stand against all new grants of monopolies and exclusive privileges, against any prostitution of our government to the advancement of the few at the expense of the many. . ."

Henry Clay, who opposed Andrew Jackson in 1832 as a presidential candidate, was soundly defeated, even with the powerful backing of the bank. The people considered this fight and victory evidence that Andrew Jackson was indeed their leader against wealth and privilege. He, however, realized the need for a central bank, which was owned and controlled by the government. But his request for such a bank was not approved by Congress, at this time. Jackson took revenge on the bank in its fight against his re-election, by removing government deposits from it even before it expired.

Andrew Jackson, an Active President. "To the Victors Belong the Spoils" (the Spoils System, by which loyal members of the party in power are given jobs in the government) was followed by President Jackson. He believed that any man in a democracy could train himself, or that he could be easily trained, to carry on the type of work demanded. Giving party workers these government jobs is known as patronage. Evidence indicates that there were quite a number of inefficient government workers, who had been holding jobs for years, and that there was only about a ten per cent turnover under Jackson. Some people feel, that the civil service, or merit system of giving jobs, and promoting government workers on the basis of ability to do the job, was set back for years.

"Our Federal Union; It must and shall be preserved!" was the toast Jackson gave at a banquet, which was held on April 13, 1830, in honor of Thomas Jefferson's birthday. Vice-President John C. Calhoun, the contemporary Congressional leader of the South, replied after an embarrassed silence, when all eyes were turned in his direction: "The Union—next to our liberty most dear—may we all remember that it can only be preserved by respecting the rights of states and by distributing equally the benefits and burdens of the Union."

The "Tariff of Abominations" of 1828 had provoked the "South Carolina Exposition" (right of nullification). This led to the adop-

tion of South Carolina's nullification ordinance, which set forth the idea that a state had the right to refuse to obey a federal law it considered to be harmful to its welfare—for example, the Tariff of 1828. South Carolina nullified the tariff law (1832).

Earlier, in 1830, Webster had replied to Hayne, the South Carolina Senator, who had set forth the theory of states' rights. Webster said: ". . . While the Union lasts we have high, exciting, gratifying prospects spread out before us, and for our children. . . Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable." He warned against a civil war if states reserved the right to revoke or disobey federal laws. "It is, sir, the people's Constitution, the people's government, made for the people, by the people, answerable to the people," he stated. He emphasized the point, that the check on the federal power was in the Supreme Court, under the law, not with the states. Otherwise, the Union would fall apart.

On December 10, 1833, Jackson proclaimed: "I consider the power to annul a law of the United States, assumed by one state, incompatible with the existence of the Union. . . inconsistent with every principle on which the Constitution was founded, and destructive of the great object for which it was formed." To an official, he stated: "I will meet treason at the threshold. . . In forty days I will have fifty thousand men in the state of South Carolina to enforce the law." (The tariff acts of 1828 and 1832, which were considered high and detrimental by the South.)

The high tariffs had resulted in nullification by South Carolina. Henry Clay therefore proposed a compromise tariff in 1833. This 1833 tariff provided for a gradual reduction in the rates, and avoided further strife at the time. Thus, President Jackson did not have to enforce his "Force Bill," in order to collect the tariff in South Carolina. John C. Calhoun, Vice-President, had resigned, however, to enter the Senate, where he could continue his fight for nullification, and states' rights.

We see in the Jacksonian administrations how three leaders in Congress (Webster, Clay, and Calhoun) influenced issues and events. The Webster-Hayne debate of 1830 was brought on by the Foote Resolution, which proposed that the surveying of Western lands be re-

stricted; and by the nullification doctrine of South Carolina, which was in opposition to Clay's tariff of 1828. Calhoun and Hayne led the nullification and states' rights fight. Webster and Jackson were the leaders for Union. Clay, whose tariff provoked the South in the first place, provided the compromise tariff. Important personalities—and issues—were emerging in the 1830's.

Jackson removed the Indians to the West. The United States had recognized the "Five Civilized Tribes" in the old Southwest. But now, Georgia wanted the Cherokee lands, and demanded that the Indians leave. John Marshall ruled that the Cherokees were a nation, and that Georgia could not remove them. President Jackson, who did not want to be dictated to by the Supreme Court, is reported to have said: "John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it." The Indians sold the land to the government and were eventually all moved to reservations.

Jackson did not seem to give support to internal improvements, although he favored them. His vetoes of the Maysville Road Bill and other bills, dealing with federal support of internal improvements, indicate that he may have felt the bills to be unconstitutional.

His issuance of the Specie Circular in 1836, which declared that the government would only receive specie (gold and silver) in payment for western lands and other dues, pricked the bubble of inflation, which was a factor leading to the Panic of 1837. Land sales dropped. Unsound banking, unregulated currency, and speculation had done its work. "Wild cat" and "pet" banks (banks without adequate regulation and backing; and banks subsidized—supported—by the government) increased the upset financial condition which followed Jackson's administration.

Jacksonian Democracy. Andrew Jackson contributed what is known as Jacksonian Democracy, to the American Republic. He stood for: the Union and the supreme or sovereign power of the federal government over the states; the extension of the executive authority and power of the President of the United States; the removal of the Indians; the Spoils System; opposition to national banking and business interests; internal improvements at state expense; and the ability of the common man to

govern himself.

Jeffersonian democracy differed from Jacksonian democracy in certain respects, for example, over such important issues as: States' Rights, the Spoils System, and the use of military force. Both, however, believed in the worth of the common man and in his ability to govern himself. Thomas Jefferson and Andrew Jackson, who differed greatly in personality and character, were alike in their devotion to the cause of democracy and the American Republic. Political parties include some of the principles and practices of these two great leaders, in their platforms today. They form Jeffersonian and Jacksonian clubs, in order to further the cause of democracy in the modern world.

His Influence and Popularity. Andrew Jackson is said to have been the only President who left the presidency, more popular than when he had entered it. Yet, he vetoed more bills than all his predecessors together. There was a touch of the autocratic (one-person rule) to his administrations. He forced the resignations of cabinet members who did not do as he wished, and appointed others who did what he desired. But in spite of this, democracy had been advanced. People were, more than ever before, in control of their units of government, through their elected representatives. The common people were represented at Washington.

Jackson loved youth, and youth respected and loved him in return. His soldiers and followers were devoted to him. His was a life of action. He did not make many speeches. He had a fighting heart. He carried on in the face of extreme suffering, and unmerciful abuse. Once, a jokester shouted to him, after he had given a speech: "Give them a little Latin, Doctor!" "Old Hickory," whose formal schooling and academic achievement were meager, replied: "E pluribus unum, my friends, sine qua non." This is the motto of the United States: "One out of many." "A necessity," is the meaning of the last part of the sentence. Thus, we have again, "Our Federal Union; It must and shall be preserved!" Harvard had awarded Jackson an honorary Doctor's degree, for his achievements. And he was certainly a graduate of the "University of Hard Knocks."

Much has been said and written about Andrew Jackson, a great deal of which might well have been left unsaid or unwritten. To under-

stand his variations in character, we must journey in our thinking to the days in which he lived; and we must know the background of his rugged life. His leadership and influence on domestic affairs within the country were great. His negotiations with Great Britain obtained the recognition of our commercial demands, in the abolition of tonnage duties on our trade with the West Indies and the reopening of them to American commerce. He forced France to pay us 23,500,000 francs in claims for seizure of property by France during the war between England and France. Jackson won the respect of foreign nations. Perhaps his military leadership had something to do with the respect, in which he was held by the world.

Jackson's Retirement. Jackson wrote: "I returned with barely ninety dollars in my pocket, bacon for my family and corn and oats for the stock to buy, the new roof on my house just rebuilt, leaking and to be repaired. I carried \$5,000 when I went to Washington: it took all of my cotton crop, \$2,250, with my salary, to bring me home. The burning of my house and furniture has left me poor." Thus, ex-President Jackson returned to his "Hermitage," hoping for a well-deserved rest in his retirement from public life. His return reminds us of Jefferson at "Monticello," and Washington at "Mount Vernon." These three leaders, who had given so much of "their lives, fortunes, and sacred honor" to their country, had desired to retire and live in peace and quiet, in the circle of their friends and family.

Andrew Jackson was privileged to have nine years in which to live in retirement, and to enjoy the esteem of his country. But his last illness caused him much suffering. He tried, in his later years, to forgive his enemies. Jackson had promised his wife to do this one thing. But it was almost too big an undertaking for a man, with bitter memories and intense prejudices.

Youth. Young Andy was reared in poverty. His parents had come to the Carolinas from Ireland, and his father had died shortly before this third son, Andrew, was born. He worked as a chore boy, and his mother worked as a housekeeper for her sister's household. Andy was below average, in what few studies he had, in the so-called, "field schools." He never mas-

tered grammar and spelling. He scorned discipline. He was involved in quarrels, cock-fights, and betting. Outdoor sports, such as throwing the bar, leaping, and running, he enjoyed; he was outstanding in these sports. His clothes were usually made of the cheapest linsey-woolsey. This made him sensitive. It also accounts for his impatience and intolerance of special privilege and pretense. He had a hot temper, and could not stand to have anyone laugh at him.

At thirteen, the young Jackson participated in a Revolutionary battle, and at fourteen, he was taken prisoner by the British. Young Andrew demanded the rights of a prisoner of war, when he was ordered to clean the boots of a British officer, who brought his sword down on the boy. His brother, Robert, was similarly attacked. These incidents caused him to hate the British. Later, both of his brothers, as well as his mother, died, at what he considered to be, the hands of his enemies, the British. His mother had been nursing sick prisoners in Charleston.

Andy worked for a while at a saddler's shop, but he spent much time riding horses and living wildly. Betting, horse-racing, and game-cocking were some of the activities, in which he indulged. Young Jackson excelled in wrestling, the art of self-defense, and shooting. He did not respond to the admonitions of relatives who tried to guide him. This lad was a young fellow of contrasts. He often seemed cruel, unforgiving, and prejudiced—especially to those, whom he felt were his enemies; but he appeared gentle, friendly, and patient to those for whom he cared. His hate and readiness to duel with his enemies were notorious. It is a wonder that such an unguided, emotional, and fun-loving youth ever emerged into a young man, who studied enough to qualify for the law. Jackson took a turn at teaching, which proved very helpful to him.

Manhood. After studying law, Jackson went to Tennessee, where he dealt in land transactions, traded horses and slaves, and ran a store. Since it was customary for lawyers to receive quite a few of their fees in goods and property, he acquired possessions, as well as money. He tended to fear and distrust the easterners, for he was often in debt to them, as a lawyer, planter, and businessman. There is much evi-

dence to show that he was prejudiced toward the East, which he felt was dominating the West and South.

Before the age of thirty-one, Jackson had been a farmer, shopkeeper, law student, lawyer, district attorney, judge, Congressman—the first Tennessee representative—and then, Senator. Albert Gallatin describes him as: "...a tall, lank, uncouth-looking personage, with long locks of hair hanging over his brows and face, and a queue down his back tied in an eel-skin; his dress singular, his manners and deportment those of a backwoodsman."

Jackson was fearless, conscientious, honest, and loyal. His reputation in and around Nashville, Tennessee, was outstanding. But he had to be on guard against his enemies, who were always ready to harm him. Jackson enforced the law at all costs, and, in doing his duty as an official, he was disliked by many people.

After his stay in Philadelphia, the seat of government, the young man became a planter in Tennessee; he fought several duels; he defeated Tecumseh and the Creek Indians; and he won a victory over the British at New Orleans.

His venture in marriage provoked much discussion. There was some question of his wife's divorce from her first husband. Later, she and Jackson were remarried. But people talked about the incident, and Andrew Jackson defended his wife's honor and good name several times. He was a devoted husband, and extremely sensitive about the incident. Time has shown that his marriage, next to his country, was his greatest comfort and loyalty. Numerous letters indicate the gentleness and loneliness of this man. His dependence on his wife, and his love and devotion, are unquestioned and undisputed.

Jackson's Military Leadership. The Indians, who were encouraged and stimulated by the British, were attacking frontier settlements in 1812. Jackson and his reckless and ruthless fighters were successful against the Creeks of Georgia and Alabama, in 1813 and 1821. They achieved a decisive victory at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend (Tohopeka), in 1814. Swift-ness of attack, was Jackson's motto.

"Old Hickory" kept down mutiny and desertion through his sheer force of character and personality. His own example of courage and

leadership inspired his men, in whom he believed, and with whom he fought. He was very impatient with President Monroe and the War Department, and pursued the Seminoles into Spanish Florida, in 1818. His execution of two British subjects was criticized, and almost caused international trouble and complications.

As early as 1819, General Jackson had considered retirement. He wrote to President Monroe, who had requested his services:

I am wearied with public life. I have risked my life for public good, I have met privations and fatigue to promote the interests of my country. I have worn out my constitution to preserve her rights and procure her safety; and when her security permitted me to retire from the scenes of war, I have been assailed by the drones of the hive. I have been accused of acts I never committed, of crimes I have never thought of, and secretly slandered in the Senate... I have labored through life to establish character, but such is the corruption of the time... I despair of a perpetuation of our happy Constitution, and have a wish to retire to private life. But, sir, you know my service is my country's as long as I can render any that may be serviceable to her and your administration of the government, and I am convinced [you] will permit it as early as it would be honorable to myself, and the interests of our common country will permit.

But Andrew Jackson continued in public life, and was called later to the highest office of all, the presidency of the United States. He was not trained in foreign relations. His predecessors in the presidency had served as Secretaries of State and foreign ministers. And yet, *President Jackson*, like *General Jackson*, achieved results.

Possible Shortcomings. Jackson's prejudices and hatreds tended to blind him to the good in others, who had the same right to their beliefs, as he had the right to his principles and practices. His democracy guaranteed them these beliefs. The tendency toward anger and fighting were against him. One might fail to recognize the good in Jackson, because of this tendency, as evidenced in the duels he fought. The record shows that a number of fights and duels were provoked by him, or at least, that they resulted from his extreme sensitiveness.

He was a good general but a poor private. That is, Jackson could lead well, but he did not follow well. He often made decisions too hastily. His habits were often bad, in that he set a poor example of good conduct. He was inconsistent, in demanding equality and recognition of the common man, and at the same time, discriminating against certain other individuals, interests, groups, sections, and peoples. His treatment of the Indians, in their desire for equality, was an example of inequality, rather than of justice and fair play.

President Jackson justified his assumption of almost dictatorial power, as President, on the ground, that the people had called him to achieve equality and freedom for them. To gain democracy, he felt that he had to lead strongly. His use of the Spoils System increased party machine domination, and bad practices in the federal government.

His good points, and devotion to his country, outweighed these weaknesses; and his achievements were remarkable—especially, when one considers his background, and the times in which he lived.

ANDREW JACKSON
(1767-1845)

Mileposts

- 1767—Andrew Jackson was born in Union County, North Carolina, on March 15. His father died before his birth. Both of his parents came from Ireland in 1765. There was a dispute over his birthplace, which was on the border of the two Carolinas, but he called himself a South Carolinian.
- 1781—Young Andrew, in his teens, had volunteered for the Revolution, and was taken prisoner by the British, whom he hated. He became an orphan: homeless and unguided. Jackson blamed the British for the death of his mother, and two brothers.
- 1787—He was admitted to the bar to practice law.
- 1788—Young Jackson removed to Nashville, Tennessee, to practice law, became prosecuting attorney, and enforced the law on the frontier.
- 1791—Married Rachel Donaldson Robards, whom he remarried in 1793, after a question over her divorce. He was very sensitive over this matter, and fought over it when it was brought up against him, or in gossip about his wife.
- 1796—He helped to frame the Tennessee Constitution, and was elected Tennessee's first Representative to the U. S. House of Representatives.
- 1797—Became a U. S. Senator, resigned, took over a judgeship on the Supreme Court of Tennessee in 1798; after six years, Jackson resigned to carry on his business and farming interests.
- 1801—Jackson was appointed major general of the militia. 1812—Headed 2,000 troops against the British. 1813—Defeated the Creek Indians on the Tallapoosa River. 1814—Appointed a major general in the regular army; defeated the Indians at Tohopeka; captured Pensacola; and repelled the British from Mobile. 1815—Defeated the British at New Orleans. 1817-1818—Put down the Seminoles in Florida.
- 1821—Made the military governor of Florida.
- 1823—Entered the U. S. Senate. 1824—Received more popular votes than John Quincy Adams for President, but when the vote was thrown into the House of Representatives, the majority was for Adams (Clay threw his influence to Adams, for which Jackson never forgave him). "King Caucus," in which candidates had been nominated by a Congressional caucus, or group of its members, died in 1824. State legislatures nominated their favorite sons.
- 1828—Jackson was elected seventh President of the United States. (Re-elected in 1832 by a substantial majority over Clay. His wife died in 1829).
- 1829—Inaugurated President, at the age of sixty-two.
- 1830—Toast to the Union. 1832—Blocked nullification, and the plan of his native state of South Carolina to secede from the Union. Vetoed the Bank bill. Re-elected. Caused the removal of bank deposits in 1833.
- 1837—Retired to the "Hermitage."
- 1845—Died on June 8.

Jackson's Leading Contemporaries. "The Great Triumvirate"—Daniel Webster, Henry

Clay, and John C. Calhoun—influenced America in the 1800's, especially from 1820 to 1850. The "War Hawks"—Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun—were leaders in the expansion movement, and in the demand for the War of 1812. Daniel Webster opposed this war (he represented the Northeastern section, at this time). These three leaders served for about forty years, and influenced America's development, during the period of nationalism, states' rights, nullification, and union. "The Great Triumvirate" agreed on one thing: their opposition to Andrew Jackson. These leaders were more influential than the Presidents who served in their contemporary America, and in the period immediately following their death about the mid-century.

Daniel Webster (1782-1852) was eloquent, dramatic, sincere, and brilliant. As a lawyer and an orator, he dressed his part. His tall, massive, and striking appearance impressed his hearers. A contemporary said: "It ain't what he says. But you can't keep from weepin' out loud when he says it." Crowds went to hear him, and he seemed to cast a spell over them. Webster had been a failure as a speaker, in his teens, partly because of fear, but he made up his mind to conquer his fear of giving speeches.

His orations and writings are challenging to us today. Young Daniel's respect and consideration for his father's wish that he study law, his high intellect and scholarship, and his defense of the Union—all stood out; and made him a great American leader in the period of nationalism and sectionalism. In support of the Compromise of 1850, he stated in the United States Senate, on July 17, 1850: "—I shall stand by the Union, and by all who stand by it. . . I was born an American; I live an American; I shall die an American; and I intend to perform the duties incumbent upon me in that character and to the end of my career. I mean to do this, with absolute disregard of personal consequences."

From 1836 to 1852, Webster was a possible candidate for President, a position for which he was more capable than some others who attained the Presidency. His "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable" (a part of his words from the Webster-Hayne debate in the Senate, in 1830, during Jackson's ad-

ministration) had a great influence on the preservation of the Union at that time. Daniel Webster was one of the great Congressional leaders for over thirty years. He favored the Bank of the United States; he opposed Polk and the Mexican War; and he talked against the extension of slavery. His leadership for Clay's Compromise of 1850 cost him the North's support; his defense of the national government against nullification, earlier, cost him the South's support. He was a leader of the Whigs, who had opposed Jackson. His leadership in the Webster-Ashburton Treaty (1842), which settled by arbitration the boundary between Canada and Maine, was noteworthy.

Webster pleaded the cause of democracy and union to the last, as he had at the beginning of his career, when he achieved success in pleading the famous cases before John Marshall and the Supreme Court; and in defending private and business interests before the Massachusetts courts. His orations on Adams, Jefferson, and military victories are masterpieces. But he did not reach the presidency, which led him to consider himself a failure.

Daniel Webster was statesman, orator, Congressman, Secretary of State, lawyer, graduate of Dartmouth College, and a defender of the Union and of the Constitution of the United States. He had opposed the Embargo and Non-Importation acts, the War of 1812, and the war legislation. Webster was a Representative from his native state of New Hampshire (1813-1817), after which he practiced law in Boston. He served as a Representative from Massachusetts (1822-1827), a United States Senator (1845-1850), and Secretary of State under William Henry Harrison, John Tyler, and Millard Fillmore.

Henry Clay (1777-1852), like Daniel Webster, could move and influence audiences. He had a musical voice, which pleased his hearers. His dress and manner were unusual, compelling, and impressive. He had a charming personality, a ready wit, and a persuasive way. His command of satire, scorn, sarcasm, and sympathy was remarkable. People idolized him in the public life, for which he was noted for almost forty years. He placed the Union above the states, and opposed nullification, and secession. He tried by readjustments and compromises to prevent the breaking up of the

Union, and the ultimate coming of bloodshed.

In speaking for his Compromise of 1850, he said: ". . . I have heard something said about allegiance to the South. I know no South, no North, no East, no West, to which I owe allegiance. . . . If Kentucky tomorrow unfurls the banner of resistance unjustly, I will never fight under that banner. I owe paramount allegiance to the whole Union—a subordinate one to my state."

His Compromise of 1850 provided for: the admission of California as a free state; the organization of the Mexican cession into two sections, with no slavery restrictions; the forbidding of the slave trade in the District of Columbia; a stricter fugitive slave law; and the payment of \$10,000,000 to Texas to settle the disputed land claim between Texas and the territory of New Mexico. Neither the abolitionists (anti-slave leaders), nor the pro-slavery sympathizers were satisfied. Clay and his supporters were unpopular. But the Compromise of 1850 probably postponed the War Between the States for another ten years, until 1861.

Clay was one of the "War Hawks," who favored the War of 1812 and expansion. His Compromise Tariff of 1833, the Missouri Compromise of 1820, and his Compromise of 1850 are examples of his leadership, as the "Great Compromiser and Pacificator." He proposed compromises for both the North and the South. But these suggestions did not help him in his desire to attain the presidency, for which he ran three times. In trying to please both sides, he satisfied neither. He was a leader of the National Republicans, who became known as the Whigs. Because he refused to take sides, at different times he failed to gain the presidency, or failed to secure the presidential nomination. Henry Clay stated that he would rather be right than President. His critics said that he was neither right, nor President.

He was a United States Senator from Kentucky (1806-1807; 1810-1811), a Representative (1811-1825), with an intermission of two years for his law practice, Speaker of the House of Representatives for twelve years, Secretary of State under John Quincy Adams (1825-1829), and a United States Senator (1831-1842; 1848-1850). Clay was a nationalist, and stood for the "American System," which favored a high protective tariff, internal improvements at

national government expense, the sale of western lands to finance internal improvements (roads and canals), and a strong central government.

Henry Clay ran against Jackson, Crawford, and John Quincy Adams, in 1824. He threw his support to Adams, when he dropped out as fourth in the race. This was known as the "Corrupt Bargain," since Adams made him his Secretary of State. Jackson defeated Clay for the presidency in 1832, when Clay supported the unpopular high tariff and the United States Bank. His refusal to take sides on the Texas annexation probably cost him the presidency in 1844, when James K. Polk became President. His failure to attain the presidency was a great disappointment to him.

John C. Calhoun (1782-1850) achieved recognition for his scholarship, logic, and discourse. He believed that the states were sovereign (supreme) over the nation and Union; that slavery was a permanent and necessary institution; and that the states might nullify laws or withdraw from the Union. The American Republic could not have been built upon Calhoun's beliefs. Daniel Webster, his political opponent, mentioned in his oration at Calhoun's death that none ever doubted the sincerity, intellect, or integrity of John C. Calhoun.

Calhoun's argument for nullification, secession, and slavery was based upon the assumption that the national government was merely the agent of the states, which were completely sovereign (supreme); and that the states had the right to resist and make national laws null and void (ineffective and unenforceable), if they felt it encroached upon their powers or rights as states (states' rights theory). This was the contract theory of government, into which the states entered, and from which they might withdraw, or nullify the central power (both entering and annulling voluntarily). He felt that the states could withdraw from the Union, if they desired. He also felt that the slaves were an inferior race, and that the institution of slavery was a benefit to them. John C. Calhoun was the spokesman for the South and for their cause.

He started out as a nationalist, a "War Hawk," with his later bitter rival, Henry Clay, favoring the War of 1812. Like Daniel Webster, Calhoun was a leader "in reverse"—Calhoun

changed from a nationalist to a states' rights leader and spokesman for the South; Webster started as a leader for the northeastern section, and became one of the Union's most powerful spokesmen.

Calhoun's "South Carolina Exposition" of 1828 was a statement against the Tariff of Abominations, which he felt discriminated against the South and in favor of the manufacturing and industrial interests of the North. His "Exposition" was also a statement in favor of nullification, since he felt that it was the only weapon against the increasing power of the national government. But Calhoun agreed with Clay in his efforts to secure a compromise tariff. The Compromise Tariff of 1833 made it unnecessary for President Jackson to use federal troops, as authorized in the Force Bill, for the collection of the tariff. South Carolina accepted the lower rates, and conflict was avoided.

John C. Calhoun acted as a United States Representative from his native state of South Carolina (from 1811), Secretary of State under Monroe (1817-1825), Vice-President under John Quincy Adams and Andrew Jackson (1825-1832), a United States Senator (1832-1843; 1845-1850), and Secretary of State (1844) under Tyler. He resigned as Vice-President under Jackson and entered the Senate to fight the protective tariff, which he considered harmful to his section of the country.

Possible Shortcomings of the "Great Triumvirate." Webster seemed to have extravagant habits, apparent inconsistencies and lack of administrative and organizational ability. Clay appeared to have a changing nature, especially in regard to Texas and its annexation (he was for, against, and indifferent at various times); he also had extravagant and bad habits. Henry Clay was unwilling to take a stand on certain issues; his willingness to accept the office of Secretary of State from John Quincy Adams, whom he had supported for the presidency, and his insistence on trying to take Canada against too many odds do not indicate sound judgment. John C. Calhoun was rather cold, austere, and uncompromising; he tended to be intellectual and seemingly unemotional.

The Western Movement and Territorial Expansion. From Jackson to Lincoln, the following Presidents served: Martin Van Buren

(1837-1841), William Henry Harrison (1841), John Tyler (1841-1845), James Knox Polk (1845-1849), Zachary Taylor (1849-1850), Millard Fillmore (1850-1853), Franklin Pierce (1853-1857), and James Buchanan (1857-1861). Any one of the three Congressional leaders (Webster, Clay, or Calhoun) would, no doubt, have been a stronger leader, than any one of the eight Presidents, who followed Jackson, and preceded Lincoln. Perhaps a stronger President in this period might have prevented the Civil War, especially in the 1850's, as the storm clouds of slavery were breaking upon Taylor, Pierce, and Buchanan.

Changes were taking place in the East and in the Mississippi Valley. New states were forming. In 1830, the United States had over twelve million people and twenty-four states; in 1840, it had increased in population to seventeen million people; in 1850, our population was twenty-three million; in 1861, we had thirty-one million people and thirty-three states. Thus, the United States more than doubled its population and increased its territory materially, in the thirty years from 1830 to 1861. Jacksonian democracy was indeed on the march, extending the western frontier.

The Oregon question was settled in 1846, at which time the northern boundary was fixed by us and England at the forty-ninth parallel. Texas was annexed in 1845, and became a state in the same year. By the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo (1848—ending the Mexican War), the Rio Grande was recognized by Mexico as the boundary of Texas, and the United States was ceded the territories of New Mexico and California. In 1853, Mexico sold us a strip of land lying to the South of the Gila River, rounding out our southwestern boundary (the Gadsden Purchase).

The discovery of gold in 1848, the Homestead Act (1862), and the spirit of the frontier contributed to the growth of American democracy. During this period from 1812 to the Civil War in 1861, there were many inventions and industrial developments in American life.

By the beginning of the Civil War, we had achieved what we considered to be "Manifest Destiny," the rounding out of our possessions from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The United States of America, whose development of territory has been called a "real estate boom" by

some people, was in possession of a continent. Mexico, Spain, France, and England were not making claims here. Russia, also, respected our territorial integrity. The Monroe Doctrine had been set forth, and no foreign nation threatened us on this continent. Perhaps, Van Buren, Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, Fillmore, Pierce, and Buchanan did well to keep the Ship of State on an even keel.

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Help Win the Peace

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Two weeks before his tragic death, the late John Gilbert Winant addressed the *Herald-Tribune* Forum in New York City. With the direct simplicity that was always the most distinguishing characteristic of his speech, Mr. Winant asked a question that every social studies teacher needs to ask himself at this time: "Are you doing as much today for peace as you did for this country and civilization in the days of war?"

During the war, all social studies teachers did double duty. In the classroom, they struggled against obstacles brought by war—indifferent students who were waiting for the draft or for their parents' permission to enlist, the overloading that frequently followed teacher resignations, the emotional tension that permeated their classrooms and made the creation of a good learning situation increasingly difficult. Outside the classroom, teachers rendered more spectacular, but no more important, service—work with the Red Cross, increased community leadership, blood donations, plane-spotting, work with the rationing, or the selective service, boards.

What are we doing today to help win the peace? Of course we are doing a lot. The very nature of the subject matter with which we deal, and of the objectives to which we all pay at least lip-service, makes it impossible for any one of us not to be doing something to help bring about peace and a better world. In our

classes we strive for tolerance and understanding—we have always done this. Many of us seek to develop in our students an understanding of the continuity of history—this has been advocated for centuries. So we could move on down the list of all of the admirable things that we are doing. We have always done them. But what about that extra effort that we expended during the war? Isn't winning the peace just as important as winning the war? Can we afford to relax and leave the making—or losing—of the peace to others?

In helping to win the war, we were dealing with concrete things. We could count the hours we spent at a "spotter station," or the bandages we rolled, or the pints of blood we gave to the Red Cross. Furthermore, we got recognition for our services. Winning the peace is different and more difficult. It means working with intangibles and dealing with uncertainties. It means long and weary hours and many headaches. And it seldom brings recognition. Perhaps a greater obstacle is the fact that it is difficult to know what to do. In the midst of a world that is so filled with hate and suspicion and pessimism, any teacher can be forgiven if he is not sure which way to turn, what to do to be of help.

One way in which the social studies teacher can make that *extra* effort to help build a just and durable world lies in his cooperation with and furtherance of the ideals of UNESCO.

A present weakness that is also a potential source of future strength is the fact that UNESCO must depend for its success on individual citizens within the nations that belong to it. Milton S. Eisenhower has said that "the essential thing is for each citizen to constitute himself a one-person committee on UNESCO, and by reading, reflection, and discussion develop a deep understanding of cultures, peoples, and problems—for such understanding is the platform on which the kindly peoples of the world who want peace must take their stand." Congressman Merrow of New Hampshire told the National House of Representatives last March that while "the total structure of the peace will not rise without additional and broader activities than those of UNESCO," the "informed conscience of the individual citizen must play a crucial and determined role. It is this building up of the peace in terms of the individual mind that is the central purpose of UNESCO."

Thus the social studies teacher is faced with a double challenge, that of developing in himself that "deep understanding of cultures, peoples, and problems," of which Dr. Eisenhower speaks, and of building for his students a firm foundation on which they, as citizens of one of UNESCO's participating nations, can establish their own responsibilities toward the peace of the world.

The Department of State has issued a bulletin, titled *UNESCO and You* (for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government

Printing Office, Washington 25; 15 cents). Among the valuable features of this pamphlet is a six-point program by which the individual may help to further the objectives of UNESCO. The social studies teacher will find numerous practical suggestions for implementing each one of the six points. This pamphlet can demolish the familiar excuse that "one teacher or one school can do nothing to rebuild the world." Briefly, the six points are as follows:

- (1) You can help by making your personal opinion felt in your community, among your friends, in your organizations, and in the local and national press and radio.
- (2) You can help by arranging, or helping to arrange, local exhibits and other programs that will dramatize UNESCO aims, projects, and principles for your community.
- (3) You can help by aiding the educational reconstruction of war-devastated countries.
- (4) You can help by taking an active part in training the young generation for peace.
- (5) You can help by joining personally in the continuing adventure of adult education, especially in UNESCO's fields of interest.
- (6) You can help by promoting personally the good will and understanding among the racial and religious groups in your community.

How would you answer John Winant's question today?—*Are you doing as much today for peace as you did for this country and civilization in the days of war?*—What will be your answer a month from now?

The Colgate Washington Study Project

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The Colgate Washington Study Project is a unique venture in civic education instituted by Colgate University. It is one attempt to bridge the gap between the classroom and political reality. It is an off-campus study of government by observation and participation. Ten honor students, majors in political science, spend a full semester in the nation's capital studying the federal government in action.

This idea is not unique, but the pattern and process for bringing the government to the classroom and the classroom into the government agencies—this is a new and distinctly different procedure from that which is usually followed in the teaching of much political science. This special arrangement for field work in political science was established in 1935 and the ninth Colgate group has just completed its term

of study. The plan includes the study of both executive and legislative branches of government. The first phase of the plan consists of major studies of several weeks' duration in the administrative agencies. The agencies studied this past semester included the Bureau of the Budget, the Civil Service Commission, the Fiscal Division of the Treasury Department, the Food and Drug Administration of the Federal Security Agency, the Federal Trade Commission, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the National Labor Relations Board, the State Department and several others. These assignments were of sufficient time so that the student secured a thorough orientation in the agency. It is the practice, as developed over the years, to assign one or more officials the responsibility to "clear" for the students so that ample opportunity is provided to see the agency in "over-all perspective" as well as to sample the activities and to see the agency in its natural setting and in its "work clothes."

Without this cooperation and interest of the key staff officials in the agencies, the project would lose its most distinctive value. The students work in pairs in these major administrative projects. No attempt is made to explain and understand all the technical details of all phases of the many administrative processes included in the executive branch. However, the student does secure a very complete and realistic picture of the agency at hand. Students in this project are constantly amazed to discover that government "bureaucracy" is not an abstraction nor yet an ogre but a thing of life and blood and service. This project gives the student opportunity to see government in action and to see "the wheels go round."

Approximately one half of the time of the school term is spent in the study of the legislative branch and the legislative process. The United States Congress affords ample and excellent opportunity for the students to observe the many phases of the law-making process when attending sessions of the Senate and the House of Representatives. A fuller understanding of the committee system is secured by attending the various committee hearings, by conferences with committee clerks and research staff assistants and by conferences with members of the committees. The students often make themselves "at home" in the office of their senator or repre-

sentative and learn much of the size and character of the congressman's day-to-day work. Other important phases of the legislative process may be observed by the students through conferences with lobbyists, research agencies and special interest groups.

In the study of both Congress and the executive agencies, considerable attention is given to group conferences with leading officials in all branches of the government. Many officials actually delight in sitting down with ten bright young college men for a frank exchange of views.

Some of the most interesting conferences have been held with cabinet members, justices of the Supreme Court, assistant secretaries, bureau chiefs, and chairmen, commissioners or directors of the various boards, agencies and commissions. Government officials have been both generous and cooperative in giving time and thought to the preparation and holding of these conferences. The conference technique of education as used in this way has some distinct advantages. No text or monograph on political parties can give us what Gael Sullivan, Vice Chairman and Executive Director of the Democratic National Committee gave us in two and one half hours on the running of a political party and the art of politics in general. The same is true when applied to the half-day conference held with leaders in the Republican National Committee headquarters, concluding with Carroll Reece and Senator Irving Ives. Again, a two-hour conference with Commissioner James J. Reynolds, Jr., of the National Labor Relations Board, gave us more insight into the basic problems of labor-management relations than we could have gotten from some books or lectures. The list of challenging, fascinating, interesting conferences is far too long to set down here. Senators and Representatives contributed some of the very best. Secretary of Labor Lewis Schwellenbach and Associate Justice Stanley Reed of the Supreme Court of the United States indicate the range of our activity. It is difficult to imagine any teaching method and arrangement which can match this for bringing fact, data, inspiration, and a setting of reality to the learner.

The student's daily work schedule is a heavy one. It includes a morning seminar session of two hours. This period provides opportunity to

match the practical and the actual in government with the theoretical. This seminar session is a "clearing house" for all matters of appointments, assignments, problems and future plans of work. It is also an opportunity to make some synthesis of text materials, monographs, government documents and publications with the observations and exciting experiences secured by the students from their daily association with the people on the governmental and the political "firing lines."

Following this seminar session, the students spend several hours in the observations and clinical activities in the agencies of administration and on Congressional Hill. From time to time group conferences, luncheons, press conferences, radio forums, and special field trips are included in the daily calendar of work. Report preparation and reading, study and preparation of all daily assignments often must be left for the evening hours. It is a far cry from an easy schedule. Comprehensive reports are prepared on all major projects and on all brief assignments.

This is a project in civic education. It is a novel attempt to study government as it is and as it does rather than as some printed page conceives of government. A number of men who have been members of this project in past years have gone into government service, both domestic and foreign. They gave unanimous testimony to the high value of this project as a pre-entry training. As for the others who have gone back to the local communities of America, this project has enabled them to assume a larger role in community leadership because they know more of the real nature and worth of government at the national level. Moreover, it has given many of these students a new and finer respect for the personnel and processes of the national government. For students with an American business background and setting, this new appreciation of government and its role is a healthy thing. This experience reveals the extent and ramifications of political power. These men now understand that government is big and complex, but they have also learned something of the social values of government.

Our Northern and Southern Neighbors: A Unit

WAINWRIGHT D. BLAKE AND VERA G. PECK

State Teachers College, Potsdam, New York

REGIONAL STUDIES—GRADE FIVE

(Time—Four Weeks)

CONCEPTS

All the concepts of previous grades should be developed further and in addition the following may receive special emphasis.

1. Nature has laid many highways that men usually follow in traveling from place to place.
2. People are constantly striving to make living easier and happier.
3. Mankind has struggled through the ages to attain social justice and a democratic way of life.
4. People live differently, do different kinds of

work and have different needs in different parts of our own country.

5. Social changes are very slow, but civilization gradually makes progress. There is a connection between the present and the past and between the present and the future.
6. Many of our present ways of living may be improved in the future.
7. People are constantly becoming more dependent upon each other for the necessities of life.
8. Industrialism tends to center population in cities and in certain regions.
9. Within broad but definite limits set up by the natural environment, there are alternate ways in which every region can be occupied and utilized.

10. Each region of our own country and of other countries has a rich history and many forms of social organization which have grown up out of the past.
11. Since men are traditionally competitive, they need constant practice in cooperation to insure the survival and strengthening of democratic ways of living.
12. Through democracy men acquire some commonly accepted social rights such as the right to speak, to work, to play and to help make the rules under which they live.

OBJECTIVES

1. To understand how the geography and climatic conditions have effected the history and economic development of these countries.
2. To discover why the natural resources of many of these countries have not been developed to a greater extent, and the possibilities for the future.
3. To gain an understanding of life in our neighboring countries and compare different types.
4. To realize that other countries and regions have heroes and leaders just as we do.
5. To provide a background for intelligent observation and discussion of these countries, now, and in the future when they will be even more closely allied with us.
6. To understand and appreciate the social customs and both the cultural and economic life of people of these countries.

EXPECTED OUTCOMES

1. A love of country deepened and strengthened by familiarity with some of the major events in its history, with its geography and with its people.
2. A tolerance based on understanding of ways of living different from our own and of differences in ways of living in our own country.
3. Knowledge of the physical features of our own community, our own region.
4. The ability to locate and describe other regions which have been studied.
5. An understanding of the similarity of man's living problems and the relation of geographic influences to our way of solving these problems.
6. A general knowledge of the history of our

community and region and also some knowledge of the history of each region studied.

7. A growing knowledge of the struggle through the ages which mankind has undergone in attaining social justice and a democratic way of life.
8. A sense of the passage of time, the progress of civilization and the connection of the present with the past and with the future.

GENERAL OUTLINE OF WORK

First two weeks:

1. South America
2. Central America
3. Mexico

Third week:

1. Alaska
2. Canada

Fourth week:

1. Comparison and contrast
2. Picking up loose ends
3. Culminating activity
4. Test

INTRODUCTION

Before beginning the unit on "Our Northern and Southern Neighbors," place books, pamphlets and illustrative materials on the library table and pictures on the bulletin board for children to look at in free time. These should prove to be an incentive for class discussions and questions. The latter will be used as a basis for study, but the following outline should be used during the discussions to illustrate location, size, etc. of the territory; also bring in cities and capitals.

The discussions should bring out children's false ideas and assumptions, such as the one that the Eskimo hibernates in winter. Also at this time a plan should be made to divide the class into groups, each of which will devote extra time outside of class period in research in a certain phase of life in these regions. Later the groups will share their material with others in an assembly or club meeting.

It is very important to discuss during the early days of the unit the sources and reference books which can be used in finding material—magazines, encyclopedias, bulletins from travel agencies, papers, geography and history books.

THE APPROACH AND STIMULATION OF INTEREST

1. Pictures on bulletin boards
2. Books on library table
3. Magazines and illustrative material

4. Maps to be used in discussion
5. Stories to be read to class
6. Slides

FORMULATION OF ACTIVITIES AND MATERIAL TO BE COVERED

1. Location and physical features of the countries
2. Comparison of climates
3. Natural resources
4. Industries, occupations, products and exports
5. Most important cities in the countries and for what they are noted
6. Historical material
 - A. How countries gained independence
 - B. Leaders
 - C. National heroes
7. Contributions to the World
 - A. Cultural
 - B. Scientific
 - C. Economic
8. Social customs

COLLECTION OF DATA

Meyer, J. G. and Hamner, O. S., *The New World and Its Growth* (Basal Text) (Follett, Chicago, 1942)

South America—pp. 507-564

Mexico—pp. 473-492

Central America—pp. 493-496

Canada—pp. 455-472

Alaska—pp. 431-442

Meyer, Gray, Hancock, *Our Southern Neighbors* (Follett, Chicago, 1942)

Atwood & Thomas, *The American Nations* (Ginn and Company, New York, 1943)

Alaska—pp. 228-235

Canada—pp. 248-263

Mexico—pp. 271-277

Central America—pp. 282-292

Brigham & McFarland, *Our Home State and Continents* (American Book Co., N. Y., 1933)

Alaska—pp. 265-272

Canada—pp. 285-296

Mexico—pp. 300-306

Central America—pp. 306-308

LIBRARY BOOKS

Adams, B. C., *Sky High in Bolivia*

Brown, Rose, *Amazon Adventures of Two Children*

Brown, Rose, *Two Children of Brazil*

Burglow, Nora, *Around the Caribbean*

Crespi, Pacheta, *Cabitas Rancho*

Desmond, Mrs. A. G., *Boys of the Andes*

Edwards, M. B., *Uncle Ben in Panama*

Fleming, P. C., *Rico, The Young Rancher*

Garrett, Helen, *Angelo, The Naughty One*

Gay, Zhenza, *Manuelito of Costa Rica*

Gill, Delia, *Letters from Guatemala*

Holton, Priscilla, *Uncle Ben in Mexico*

Kelsey, Vera, *Six Great Men of Brazil*

Lee, M. H., *Children of Banana Land*

Lee, M. H., *Pablo and Petro*

Malkus, A. S., *Along the Inca Highway*

Morrow, Elizabeth, *The Painted Pig*

Pollack, K. G., *Gancho's Daughter*

Storm, Dan, *Picture Tales from Mexico*

Stratton, Randell, *Juarez of Mexico*

Stratton, Randell, *The Village That Learned to Read*

Von Hagen, V. W., *Riches of Central America*

Von Hagen, V. M., *Riches of South America*

Wahlert, Jennie, *Meeting Our Neighbors*

Waldeck, Mrs. J. M., *Exploring the Jungle*

Williams, H. L., *Kimbi*

Dagliesh, Alice, *The Little Angel*

Frank, H. A., *Mexico and Central America*

Gill, R. C., *Kahn, The Llama*

Harnoncourt, Rene D., *Mexicana*

Haskell, Jean, *Mexico*

Lee, Milicent, *Marcos*

Russell, Mary, *Si Si Rosita*

Stark, Sutherland, *Chancho, a Boy and His Pig*

Weekly Readers

Slides

Maps, pictures and magazines

CORRELATIONS

1. Stories to be read:
 1. "Angelo, The Naughty One"
 2. "Pedro of the Andes" (visits in other lands)
 3. "How the Colonies Won Their Independence"

"San Martin and Bolivar" (*Our Southern Neighbors*)
2. Oral English
 1. Reports on topics assigned.
 2. Book reports
3. Written English
 1. Letter to a boy or girl in South America, Mexico, etc.
 2. Story about life in one of these countries
 3. Write poems
 4. Written exercises
4. Music—Chosen by music teacher

5. Art

1. Paper plates with Mexican or South American designs.
2. Mural or frieze for room.

6. Spelling—Special lists of words encountered in the unit to be put on board for study

7. Reading—Group C—3rd-grade level

Buckley, H. M., *Around the Year*, (American Book Company, New York, 1938)
Mexico—pp. 9-23

Wilson, H. E. & F. H., *Ways of Living in Many Lands*, (American Book Company, New York, 1937)
Mexico—pp. 249-289

Weekly Readers—Group B—4th-grade level

Meyer and Sorenson, *Friends Near and Far* (Follett, Chicago, 1943)

Central America—pp. 58-84

Brazil—pp. 19-48

Alaska—pp. 211-237

Gates and Ayer, *Let's Travel On* (Macmillan Company, New York, 1940)
Alaska—pp. 434-441

Weekly Readers—Group A—5th-grade level

Hahn, J. L., *Tales and Travels* (Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1938)

South America—pp. 259-332

Weekly Readers

8. Health and Safety

1. Tropical diseases
2. Effect of climate upon health of people
A. Alaskan Eskimo
3. Travel—different modes of safety

9. Science

1. Slides—physical features of South America

10. Arithmetic

1. Graphs
A. Railroad mileage
B. Population

CULMINATION OF ACTIVITIES

1. Quiz program carried on by students
2. Story in English class
3. Test
4. Mural in room
5. Display of plates designed and made

DO'S AND DON'T'S FOR UNIT TEACHING

1. Don't embark upon a unit without knowing beforehand what it is all about, where and when you are going to come out, and how you will probably get there.
2. Try relatively short units covering one, two, or three weeks, at least at first.
3. Create and utilize a "free margin of time" that may be devoted to trying out unit teaching.
4. Don't expect unit teaching to take care of the problem of interest. The teacher's own interest and enthusiasm are still a dominant factor.
5. Provide adequate drill in the drill subjects, including the drill aspects of the unit.
6. Don't drag in subject matter from the course of study that has no real connection with the unit. Don't overload the unit.
7. Keep the unit moving through discussion reports bringing in fresh material, etc.
8. Note carefully the incidental learning going on (by-products) such as attitudes, word habits, use of time, relationships, etc.
9. Don't permit the unit to monopolize time to the extent that it becomes dead weight, tiresome, monotonous.
10. Test frequently enough and sufficiently enough to know what your pupils are actually getting out of the unit.
11. Check progress and results frequently with your previously determined plans and the course of study.
12. Don't require your pupils to make too many decisions or carry too much responsibility.
13. Make adequate provision for clinching the unit so that every pupil may emerge with a clean-cut, usable meaning of the unit.

AVAILABLE FILMS FOR THIS UNIT

These are obtainable from the Encyclopedia Britannica Corporation of Chicago, Illinois

Mexico
Argentina

Northeastern States
Eskimo Children

Navajo Indians	Sugar Cane	Hawaii	Northwestern States
Prairie Province of Canada	Men of the Coast Guard	Arteries of a City	Work of the Rivers
Colonial Expansion	West Indies	Southwestern States	Maritime Provinces
Mexican Children	Southeastern States	Wearing Away of Land	New England Fishermen
Middle States	Americans All	Water Power	Airplane Changes the World Map
Alaska	Colonial Children	Corn Farmer	Venezuela
Shell Fishing	Geological Work of Ice	French Canadian Child	Westward Movement
Early Settlers in New England	Chile	America's High Spots	Science and Agriculture
Peru	Pacific Canada	Kentucky Pioneers	Wheat Farmer
The River	Aluminum	Flatboat Men	
	Columbia Crossroads	Brazil	
		Airplane Trip	

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Graham Junior-Senior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

Educators on the alert for good films pertaining to our Atomic Age will be interested in this Catalog (GES-402K)—“General Electric Motion Pictures.” It offers more than fifty films which are lent at no cost except for transportation—and gives complete directions for ordering. Address all inquiries to Educational Service Division, Dept. 6-237, General Electric Corporation, Schenectady 5, N.Y.

“Living Leaders” is a new service through which one may get a set of photographs and a one-page history of either the Cabinet or the Supreme Court. Write to Living Leaders, Box 32, Harvard Square, Cambridge 38, Mass.

CHARTS, MAPS, POSTERS, OTHER AIDS

Air-Age World Map. Here is an unusually beautifully printed, full-color map (size 44"x32") designed to show the increasingly important over-the-top-of-the-world-skyways, great circle courses and distances to every part of the world. Write to Educational Dept., C. S. Hammond and Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.

Wall Map of India. This is an attractive and up-to-date political map in four colors, size 22"x28". Write to The Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N.Y.

Picture Map of Mexico. This illustrated map (size 50"x38") depicts the pageant of Mexican life. On paper suitable for coloring; accompanied by a sheet of explanatory text and a series of pictures to be colored are further suggestions to round out this project. Write to The Friendship Press.

Picture Map of The Caribbean Islands. This is an illustrated map (size 38"x50"), with accompanying sketches to be colored, cut out, and pasted on the face of the map. There is ample space for individual creative work, such as making a product or historical map. Write to The Friendship Press.

SLIDES AND FILM STRIPS

“Health And Security For America.” This is a 35 mm.—black and white—silent film strip. It clearly and vividly illustrates the facts and figures on America's health and social security. It presents in human, understandable terms the various forces of the problem. Write to Current History Films, 77 Fifth Avenue, New York 3, N. Y.

Transportation and Communication Series. The following four slide films review the historical development of transportation and communication:

"History of Land Transportation" (48 frames)—Illustrates man's progress in land transportation, from the beginning of civilization to the present time, and explains how this progress has brought about a wider knowledge of the world.

"History of Water Transportation" (41 frames)—Shows how man has travelled on water through the ages, and how he has put his great inventions to work in overcoming the geographical barriers of rivers, lakes and oceans.

"History of Air Transportation" (42 frames)—Traces the development of air transportation from man's earliest efforts to imitate the flight of birds to his present-day achievements in air transportation.

"History of Communication" (48 frames)—Describes man's progress in communications, from early sign language through modern developments in radio and television.

MOVIE FILMS

"Territorial Expansion of the United States from 1783 to 1853." This is a two-reel, sound film . . . showing the growth of the United States from colonial times to its present size exclusive of possessions. This growth is depicted in chronological order in a manner designed to accord with that in which American history is taught in the classroom. Animated maps are used extensively. Write to Films Incorporated, 330 W. 42nd Street, New York 18, N. Y.

"Territorial Possessions of the United States." This is a two-reel, sound film that may be used as a sequel to "Territorial Expansion of the United States." It continues to present the growth of this country through acquisition of Alaska, the insular possessions, the Canal Zone,

and comes down to the present. Animated maps are used to familiarize the student with location and size of the possessions. Write to Films Incorporated.

"Causes and Effects of World War I." This is a two-reel, sound film. It goes back to 1879—the time of Bismarck—and traces the events that culminated in the war. Contact Films Incorporated.

"How a Bill Becomes a Law." This is a pictorial film, running time 15 minutes. Through generous use of animation, interspersed with casual photography, the procedure of the enactment of federal legislation is shown. For further information, write to Pictorial Films, 625 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y.

"Parliamentary Procedures in Action." This is a 12-minute, black and white, sound film. It presents the various steps to be taken in properly conducting a meeting—the call to order, reading of the minutes, reports of committees, unfinished business, orders of the day, new business, and adjournment, as well as other incidental activities. Write to Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

"We, The Peoples." This is an eight-minute, black and white, sound film. It is designed to show the various purposes and functions of the United Nations Organization. Through the combined use of live action and selected animated charts, the film fully describes each of the basic functions of the six major divisions of the United Nations, and points out the responsibility which devolves upon each individual in making the United Nations Organization fulfill its purpose. A teacher's guide is included. Write to Young America Films, 18 East 41st Street, New York 17, N. Y.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

PARENTS AND EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Last month this department offered some critical comments on an article which advocated a rigid cultural curriculum for all secondary school pupils. Probably the chief of several objections that were made to this idea was that it entirely ignored the several abilities, interests

and needs of individual pupils. It set up in advance a paternalistic concept of what was best for every youth and demanded that he conform to the pattern. This type of educational philosophy represents one barrier to real progress toward the true goal of education—giving each child the kind of training that will help him per-

sonally to achieve a place as a worthy and productive member of society. There are numerous other obstacles including financial limitations, which prevent the schools from doing more fully what they already recognize should be done. Not the least of the difficulties, however, is the attitude of parents. This phase of the problem of the high school curriculum was the subject of an article by J. K. Stoner of the State Teachers College at Indiana, Pennsylvania, in the January number of *Educational Forum*.

The average modern forward-looking secondary school tries to provide a curriculum suited to the needs of its community, and sufficiently flexible to meet the requirements of a widely varied student body, as far as is economically practicable. It offers the services of trained personnel to consult with individual pupils, study their abilities and needs, and advise them on their educational programs. Yet, even the best of such schools have large numbers of failures, that is, individuals who drop out of school before the completion of their educational opportunity, or who graduate but fail to make a success of their subsequent careers. Without question a considerable percentage of these pupils who have failed to get the education they really needed must be charged as failures of their parents rather than of the school or of themselves. Either the parents have insisted upon the child's following a school program to which he was not suited, or have simply failed to give positive support to the school's recommendations and permitted the pupil to miss his opportunity through sheer inertia or indifference.

As Mr. Stoner points out in his article, the intense and personal interest which a parent usually has in his child's welfare may actually work to his disadvantage in school. It tends to blind him to the child's real capacities and aptitudes. Where the pupil's future career is under consideration, the parent is likely to overemphasize his apparent talents and minimize his shortcomings, in the fond hope that Johnny may become a great doctor, artist, lawyer or captain of industry. He may be extremely reluctant to accept the school's advice that Johnny be taught a skilled trade or be permitted to major in distributive education. As a result, the boy continues to plod through a curriculum unsuited to his needs and capacities and sooner or later

runs head on into obstacles that he cannot surmount.

Many parents are reluctant to permit their children to take a practical arts curriculum of some sort, feeling that it bears some kind of social stigma. There are frequent instances, in every school, of pupils of low academic ability, whose parents have insisted at all costs on keeping them in a college preparatory curriculum until their repeated failure to keep up has made it impossible for them to graduate at all. A different type of education might have given them both the personal satisfaction of successful accomplishment and a practical start toward a useful vocation. There is no reason to assume that some type of vocational or practical arts education will deprive the pupil of the basic elements of a proper cultural training. The right kind of vocational curriculum is well-balanced and includes literature, science, the social studies and the other factors essential to a well-rounded secondary program. A purely vocational type of curriculum is no more defensible than is the requirement of a traditional academic course for a pupil who is not equipped to assimilate it.

Mr. Stoner's article is a reasoned plea to parents to consult the school for guidance about their children's program, and to learn the facts of the case before stubbornly insisting that the child must be prepared for a certain type of career. It is equally important that they avoid the opposite extreme of apathy and indifference, casually approving whatever course the child, for reasons best known to adolescents, may decide he wishes to take. In such cases the parent is far too likely to blame the school when he discovers too late that the child is unprepared to accept a desirable opportunity that may eventually offer itself.

If education is to achieve its best results, it must be centered around the needs of the individual child, and this requires the mutual cooperation and understanding of the school and the parents. The school which fails to offer a flexible and realistic program, and the parent who refuses to modify his personal ambitions in the light of facts, are equally at fault. The educational failure of a child is far more likely to be the result of one of these things than of his own inherent inability or perversity.

TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING

The teaching of social studies has improved almost beyond measure in the past fifty years or less. This at least must be the appraisal of any teacher and of any fair-minded person who is in a position to make comparisons. The form of the improvement takes two aspects: the scope of the material studied, and the means by which it is approached. In the latter case the outstanding development is the substitution of learning plus critical thinking for mere rote memory.

This is not to say that there are not yet social studies classes where historical, political or economic facts are crammed into the minds of pupils without any effort being made to aid their digestion. But such instances are becoming increasingly more rare, as modern teachers realize that the accumulation of mere information in social studies is of no more value than a similar collection of data in science would be; the important thing is that the student be ready and able to draw worth-while deductions from the facts which he possesses. In other words, he must develop the faculty of critical thinking, in social studies or science. The recognition of this fact and its application to teaching methods constitutes the basic improvement in social studies in our schools.

Of course, we have not succeeded in making critical thinkers out of our pupils; perhaps to some extent it is a case of the blind leading the blind. But the effort is being made, and progress can frequently be measured in the healthy curiosity which pupils show toward social phenomena. It is this attitude of curiosity and questioning appraisal which needs to be developed if the democratic process is to be taught, for successful democracy rests upon intelligent and critical public opinion. If opinion is not based upon thinking and reason, it is of no value to anyone but demagogues and dictators.

"Critical thinking and self-direction, like biological organisms, grow through exercise," wrote Warren R. Good of the University of Michigan in a recent article in the university's *School of Education Bulletin* and condensed in the January issue of *The Education Digest*. Mr. Good was appealing for greater courage among social studies teachers to foster critical discussion of controversial subjects in the classroom. The social studies become alive, meaningful and

interesting to pupils who find that they are concerned with matters that they recognize as of genuine importance to them.

Such subjects as racism, labor problems, the meaning of a free press, civil rights, the problem of communism, compulsory education, religious education, inflation, the meaning of Americanism and scores of other so-called controversial or "dangerous" topics can be used as means of stimulating intelligent critical thinking. In doing so, students can be shown that honest thinking and honest opinions can only be based on facts. Thus the learning of facts and the processes of reading and research become means to an immediate end—more effective participation in a lively class discussion in which the pupil is really interested. If a teacher is alert to point out phases of the discussion where more authoritative background information is needed, pupils will be far more apt to seek it and retain it than if the same material were merely assigned as part of a lesson that had no immediate and apparent values for them.

The skillful teacher who is always ready to stimulate an argument or challenge a tradition in order to get his pupils to think and search for the truth will be well rewarded by the results. The course may not follow a neatly prepared outline, but the chances are that the pupils will become more intelligent members of society.

TESTING FOR OBJECTIVES

An interesting article on testing for objectives in the social studies was contributed to *High Points* for December, by Sidney Barnett of the High School of Music and Art, New York City. It reproduced a set of tests which were used in the civics course in that school. One contained a series of statements representing different types of propaganda devices which pupils were asked to identify. Another quoted a portion of an actual speech, from the tenor of which pupils were asked to decide whether the speaker would probably agree or disagree with a series of statements that followed. A third tests ability to draw valid conclusions from a table of statistics, while another offers an interesting check on pupils' ability to discriminate among pertinent qualities in selecting a candidate for office. While none of the tests are particularly new in character, taken together

they form a good means of either diagnosing a class's comprehension of civic principles before teaching or of checking on the effectiveness of the teaching afterward.

In connection with the discussion of teaching for critical thinking in the preceding section, the type of tests referred to here are particularly appropriate. The emphasis is not so much on data memorized as on the acquired ability to analyze, judge and reason from given sets of facts, and it is this type of learning which is most likely to be of practical value in ordinary life. At least we like to believe that this is so, but the underpaid and conscientious teacher may on reflection be inclined to wonder occasionally as he listens to the gamut of radio quiz shows, and hears furnished homes and world tours being awarded to someone who remembered that John Adams was the second President of the United States or that Meade was the Union commander at Gettysburg. Critical thinking may make better citizens, but a good memory for minutiae seems to pay off better on the networks. It is time some sponsor provided a quiz show for teachers only, so that we might have an opportunity to earn some direct dividends on our work.

NOTES

The U. S. Office of Education published a special edition of *School Life* during February which deserves the attention of all social studies teachers. "Zeal for American Democracy" is the theme of the whole issue, and its articles by a number of noted authorities are devoted to various aspects of democratic living as opposed to the ideals and practices of communism or fascism. Much of the material in it would be highly suitable for reading and discussion in social studies classes. Single copies at ten cents or quantities of 100 for \$7.50 may be bought from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.

The article in the February *American Magazine* by Federal Security Administrator Oscar R. Ewing on the need for federal aid to education was a good example of the type of publicity for this cause which will be effective. Federal aid needs to be explained to the lay public, and it must be done through the media that the public reads, not through the professional journals and educational meetings.

Anyone doing research work in the general

field of international problems will find the January issue of *International Conciliation* useful. It contains a bibliography of 327 research projects now being carried on by specialized organizations and university departments in the United States, the United Kingdom and Canada. Each item is briefly described as to its scope and general nature. The December number of the same periodical contained a valuable summary of the various reports on the European Recovery Program made by the Committee of European Economic Cooperation, and by several committees of the United States government.

The Russell Sage Foundation Library has begun the publication of a series of bibliographical pamphlets, and plans to issue from three to five each year. The first number is a checklist of serials pertaining to social welfare and related fields.

The more or less compulsory attendance of teachers at summer school sessions has been under increasing fire, perhaps as part of the general revolt of teachers against the restrictive and non-remunerative conditions which have always been their lot. Two interesting articles attacking the practice of making summer school attendance a factor in obtaining higher salaries appeared in the January issue of *The Clearing House*. It is a healthy sign; for too long teachers have been compelled to submit to what is certainly an unprofessional indignity. The common requirement that in order to obtain regular increments of salary a teacher must periodically attend summer school is found in no other profession. It assumes that teachers will stagnate unless forced to take courses, and it further assumes that the average summer session course in education is a broadening and liberalizing experience; both assumptions are highly dubious to say the least. It may be hoped that the more favorable bargaining position of teachers today will lead not only to better salary conditions but to a modification of the summer session nuisance. Out of it may come types of summer education for teachers which will be so vital and worth-while that teachers will seek them voluntarily. It is time that school people were freed from their place between the two millstones—school board requirements on one side and inefficient schools of education on the other.

MEETINGS

On April 23 and 24, 1948, the Middle States Council for the Social Studies will meet in its regular spring conference at American University, Washington, D. C. to discuss "Teaching Youth the World Responsibilities of Americans." This is the fifth in a series of conferences of the Council, will make his presidential address and its effects upon social studies teaching.

The Friday evening meeting (April 23) will begin with a reception at the home of President Douglass of American University, followed by dinner at six. Dr. Morris Wolf, the President of the Council will make his presidential address on "Freedom, a Democratic Interpretation." Beginning at ten o'clock on Saturday morning, reports on the subject of the conference will be made, discussing the practices, plans, views, materials, proposals, and difficulties

found in various communities in the Middle States area. These reports will be presented in three sections, the elementary, the secondary, and the college and teacher-training level. The Saturday sessions will close with the luncheon and an address by Dr. John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, on "Teaching Zeal for Democracy."

Overnight accommodations may be secured at American University at \$1.00 a person. Dinner and luncheon together will cost not more than five dollars. There will be a post-conference trip to see the dogwood and Judas trees of Rock Creek Park and the cherry blossoms in the Potomac Basin. All teachers of social studies are welcome.

For further particulars, address the secretary, Eleanor W. Thompson, Philadelphia High School for Girls, 17th and Spring Garden Streets, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

Fundamental Education: Common Ground for All Peoples. Report of a Special Committee to the Preparatory Commission of UNESCO. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947, Pp. 281. \$2.50.

This is a report to, not of, a preparatory commission. It is the first fruit of the labors of the Education Section of the Preparatory Commission's Secretariat. The volume was to have been presented to the first session of the General Conference, November-December, 1946, but due to printing delays, its presentation was made at a later date.

It is not an exhaustive treatise of the subject, but is a working document. The purpose is to suggest ways in which UNESCO may proceed with a vast and urgent problem. Fundamental Education is defined as a basic education, the education of the mass of people. To quote from the report:

We must first define the meaning of Fundamental Education. It is a basic education, the education of the mass of the people. This

concept needs defining extensively and comprehensively. On the one hand basic education is addressed to the largest possible number of persons, without limitation, differentiation, or discrimination. From this point of view it is opposed to any system of teaching founded upon the existence of privileged minorities, religious or social castes, or upon the desire to build up a scholar class having a monopoly of knowledge. It is thus one of the components of democracy and an essential instrument for establishing a democratic life in nations. Fundamental Education is therefore essentially popular and universal.

Furthermore, basic education must be defined according to its content and its purpose. It is teaching of the people for the people, for the people's needs and aspirations. The primary purpose of basic education will be to combat ignorance and illiteracy and to spread elementary knowledge and the means of acquiring it. Hence the funda-

mental importance of teaching the three "R's," reading, writing and arithmetic; this teaching is a necessary implement for all further instruction. Fundamental education, however, must have a content that is real and not purely formal; it must aim at improving the life of the nation, influencing the natural and social environment and imparting knowledge of the world. From this point of view basic education will be of incomparable social value, a force working for progress and evolution, even radical transformation.

This report makes an effort to get down, in a realistic manner, to grass roots—the fundamental educational needs of the backward or retarded millions of people throughout the world who constitute the great majority of the earth's population.

Teachers and others who are interested and concerned about the important role education must play in creating peace within the hearts and minds of people the world over will find this a fascinating report. It includes not only a statement of purpose, but it also includes studies of the obstacles to the program and its progress. The authors are well aware that mere literacy, important as it is, is no cure-all for the world's problems. It is their assumption, however, and one with which this reviewer is in accord, that this program of "Fundamental Education" is an important step in the right direction.

The book contains in Appendix A the names of the contributors and participants and enough of their background of experience to establish more confidence in them and in their proposals. Appendix B lists the sources of the manuscripts used in this volume. The book is also carefully indexed.

RICHARD H. McFEELY

Friends' Central School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

So You Want to Help People: A Mental Hygiene Primer for Group Leaders. By Rudolph M. Wittenberg. New York: Association Press, 1947. Pp. 173. \$3.00.

Perhaps more than any other group, social studies teachers are concerned with democratic group processes, with student government, school elections, the development of leadership and helping children assume the respon-

sibilities which gradually lead into good citizenship. While a great deal of emphasis is placed on these outcomes, very little insight into the dynamics of group relationships, the differences in individual needs, and the causes of aggression and resistance is included in the pre-service or in-service training of teachers. Yet, few would attempt to refute the fact that good group relationships are fundamental to any successful teaching situation.

While there have been a few books written for the specialist, such as Dr. Slavson's *An Introduction to Group Therapy*, the difficulty with these is that they are not readily applicable to classroom situations. They are more concerned with the deviate than with the relationships of normal young people. It is a real pleasure, therefore, to find Dr. Wittenberg's book. In *So You Want to Help People*, he has translated his specialized knowledge in the field of group relationships and his experience in schools, social agencies, camps and other organizations into language understandable to the average teacher.

The first division of Dr. Wittenberg's book is titled "The Leader Looks at the Group." Under this heading are discussed "Relationship: The Transmission Belt," "Good for Whom: Leader or Group?" and "Program: Ends or Means?" This section is particularly valuable for teachers, as few will be able to read it without re-evaluating their own aims and purposes in the classroom, without conscious questioning of their methods to determine whether their own pupils' needs are placed foremost. Case studies illustrate the need of many adults to have young people dependent upon them. These adults will sacrifice time and money if the group will only look up to them as the leader. Such an atmosphere is not a healthy one. Under these conditions young people do not develop leadership nor learn group skills, but lose both initiative and self-reliance.

Teachers as a group have often been taught to feel that they must always be in complete charge of every activity, must lead or even dominate the group in order to be successful. Yet under such a set-up, individual ability to plan and carry out activities, to work within a group and gain self-confidence, is sacrificed to learning to follow the teacher and do individual pieces of assigned work.

The effects of a leader's own childhood experiences on his relationships to his group are carefully analyzed. The use of competition, hero worship, the question of authority and discipline are touched on both in theory and through actual case material. In speaking of the last the author comments that, in his book, discipline:

will always be understood to mean the "voluntary subordination of the individual to the welfare of the group." This is the definition used by General Marshall in the U. S. Army. In this sense discipline is a goal of good group leadership, rather than a means to which one resorts on special occasions. While most group leaders will be ready to accept this definition, it is realistic to recognize the fact that many leaders use punishment when they find themselves unable to get "voluntary subordination of the individual to the welfare of the group."

Conflict exists when the leader, charged with the accomplishment of this goal, finds himself frustrated and, as the result (in the true sense of the word), "loses control." As with other frustrations, he himself falls back on earlier stages of behavior, using threats, physical force, or emotional pressure. This is the absence of discipline on the part of the leader. It lowers the level of discipline in the group.

Considerable space is devoted to boy-girl problems. Emphasis is placed on the need for frank discussion of young people's problems but equal stress is given to the fact that adolescents are not interested in and usually do not comprehend idealistic lectures on love or too technical explanations of sex.

The traditional method of sending the pupil to the principal's office is dissected so that the reader sees what the adult is really doing to the child and the effect created by such a "talking to." How a "listening-to" could replace the usual interview and the advantages of such a procedure are shown through case materials. The place of records and suggestions on how to make them of real value is also developed through illustration.

Although this book was not written exclusively for teachers but for all "the great army of people who work with youngsters in this country, especially youngsters between eight

and eighteen years of age," it seems of particular value for teachers engaged in developing citizenship and who, therefore, need to be aware of and skilled in the processes of group leadership. It would seem wise for such groups to read through and discuss parts if not all of this little book. It offers an opportunity to gain insight into group relationships, and to gain understanding of the children who are problems to the teacher or the group, and of those who, because of their backgrounds or inabilities to mix with the group, are problems to themselves. It has been a long time since such a clear and helpful book has appeared in this often neglected field.

MARIAN RAYBURN BROWN
Cortland, New York

Jewish Community Life in America. By Ben M. Edidin. New York: Hebrew Publishing Company, 1947. Pp. 282. \$2.50.

This is a description of Jewish group life in the local community. Each topic is treated in its historical development in the United States, with the current scene as the focus of attention. Intended for students, teachers, and group leaders in Jewish communities, it aims to create a better understanding of Jewish problems. While adult study groups may use it, the book is more suitable as a textbook for secondary school age groups.

The author explains that in the English colonies of North America the first Jews were Spanish refugees and English immigrants. After 1820 a large number of Jews came from Germany. The great Jewish exodus came from eastern Europe after 1880.

Because of the strong bonds of the Jewish home and family life, the Jews who came to the United States later, brought their relatives. Thus they founded the communities with the synagogues, schools, stores, and other agencies. The synagogue, the first institution, had a school for the children, fostered charitable activities, and was a center for meetings. Three out of every four Jewish children attend their week-day schools for a year or more. Courses in Bible, Hebrew, and Jewish history are offered.

The Jewish community's provisions for recreational activities, lectures, and holiday celebrations are surveyed. It is explained that emphasis

is placed on social service—helping poor families, child care, hospitalization, and homes for the aged.

Several chapters deal with the deep sense of kinship of fellow Jews all over the world. A Jewish Welfare Fund provides money for needy Jews abroad. The Zionist movement conducts an educational program to promote Jewish interests in Palestine, to increase the use of the Jewish language, and to strengthen the Jewish life generally.

The purposes of Jewish community life are listed as being "for their own happiness and for the happiness of their descendants after them, for the welfare and survival of the Jewish people, and for the progress of the United States and the world." The effect of the book, though, is to give the reader a stronger appreciation of the community's contributions to the first two aims, without sufficient explanation of its contributions to the progress of the United States. The author should have given more space to the importance of the Jews in the civic and political life of the United States. Nevertheless, Jewish youth, in common with the young people of other religious groups, should be taught their heritage and be encouraged to practice and transmit it. We have here a good exposition of what Jewish group life has done for the welfare and survival of its people.

IRA KREIDER

Readings in Social Psychology. Edited by Theodore M. Newcomb and Eugene L. Hartley. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947. Pp. xiv, 672. \$3.85.

According to the title page, this volume was—"Prepared for the Committee on the Teaching of Social Psychology for the Psychological Study of Social Issues." Those directing the preparation of the volume were the co-chairmen of the editorial committee, Theodore M. Newcomb and Eugene L. Hartley, the former a member of the Departments of Sociology and Psychology at the University of Michigan, and the latter a member of the Department of Psychology at the College of the City of New York. The roster of the editorial committee includes such distinguished names as Gordon W. Allport, Margaret Mead, Goodwin Watson, and Kimball Young.

The "readings" included are from the pens of a number of authors. These contributions are grouped into sixteen sections. The groupings in two of the sections, for example, are as follows:

VIII. *Role and Status*

1. Concepts of Role and Status—R. Linton
2. The Adjustments of the Individual to His Age and Sex Roles—L. S. Cottrell, Jr.
3. Sex Roles in Polygamous Mormon Families—K. Young
4. Changes in Sex Groupings of School Children—J. L. Moreno
5. The Rating and Dating Complex—W. Waller
6. The Professional Thief—E. H. Sutherland

XI. *Social Class*

1. The Class System of the White Caste—A. Davis, B. B. Gardner, and M. R. Gardner
2. The Class System
 - A. Learning the Class System in Plainville, U.S.A.—J. West
 - B. The Family in the Class System—W. L. Warner and P. S. Lunt
 - C. The Social Role of the Teacher—W. L. Warner, R. J. Havighurst, M. B. Loeb
3. The American Class Structure: A Psychological Analysis—R. Centers
4. Social Status and Child-Rearing Practices—M. C. Ericson

In some instances the contributions are rewritten versions of previously reported research; some are sketches, so to speak, of certain reports to be more fully elaborated later; and some were prepared especially for this volume.

More material is presented than is usually assigned for one semester's collateral reading in an introductory course in Social Psychology. This will enable the teacher to choose some readings and to reject others.

Those responsible for the publication well understand that today Social Psychology must take into account the recent advances in such diverse fields as Ethnology, Statistics, Clinical Psychology, and Psychiatry, for—

It is the peculiar province of the social psychologist to bring to bear upon his study of the behaving organism all relevant factors, from whatever sources and by whatever methods ascertained, which inhere in the fact

of association with other members of the species. (Preface, vii.)

The volume—

does not attempt to provide an over-all theoretical framework for the materials of Social Psychology. It can be only a supplement to, and not a substitute for, the continuity and systematization to be found in the standard textbooks, or which may be provided by a series of lectures by a single individual. (Preface, viii.)

Many will be particularly interested in these three sections:

The Basic Psychology of Rumor (pp. 547-561);

The Invasion from Mars (pp. 619-628);

The Phantom Anesthetist of Mattoon: a Field Study of Mass Hysteria (pp. 639-650).

As a compendium of collateral material, *Readings in Social Psychology* will be of much value to teachers of the Social Sciences, Education, and Psychology.

The Editorial Committee invites users of the book to make suggestions. According to the present plan, inquiries will be sent out to "all teachers known to have used the volume who are willing to express grounds for satisfaction and dissatisfaction." The criticisms offered will be helpful in the preparation of future editions.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Oregon

Unseen Harvests: A Treasury of Teaching.

Edited by Claude M. Fuess and Emory S. Basford. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. xx, 678. \$5.00.

In this long and rambling volume, the editors, long experienced in the profession of teaching, have brought together an anthology of materials about teachers, teaching, and the taught, covering a period from the ancient Greeks down to the late William Allen White. In the foreword the editors warn the educational philosophers that this collection of miscellaneous writings is not for them but is for the perusal of the "professors and the 'schoolmarm's' seeking for recreation," not education, and hope is expressed that both teachers and laymen "may be entertained by this presentation of pedagogues and

their occasional tribulations." Entertainment, not enlightenment or a desire to reform the educational world, would seem to be the purpose of the collection.

This treasury of teaching includes excerpts from the writings of one hundred eight different people and from most of them more than one harvest is made. About half of the writers are English and a greater part of the other half are North Americans. One or more representatives from Greece, Rome, Medieval Europe, Germany, France, all of the British Isles, and China are included. Not all are professional teachers (both Jesus and Confucius are listed) and not all the material is about schools. A considerable body of the collection concerns private (public in Britain) schools, and this probably indicates the paucity of writings about public education or a predilection of the compilers. Certainly, it indicates a wide acquaintance on the editors' part with a vast body of literature not familiar to many readers.

Before turning to this miscellany, the editors disclaim any responsibility for any basic arrangement, either chronologically, by subject, or by nation. They also deny any intention of giving the collection continuity or cumulativeness. It is straight smörgåsbord on a revolving table. In one twenty-page dip the reader gets Rousseau's "On Reasoning with Children," from *Emile*; a French writer's description of the last class in a French village before the Germans took over in 1870; Edward Gibbon's account of life at Oxford, the "most idle and unprofitable" period in his life; a British novelist's story of his reluctant return to school after vacation; and to complete the sample, James Whitcomb Riley's "Old School-Day Romances." From philosophy to romance, from weighty words to poetry is the fare as one goes through the treasury. The neat index, by author, runs thus: F. P. Adams, Henry Adams, Matthew Arnold, Roger Ascham, St. Augustine, etc. There are two essays in a lighter vein, including one by a close relative of a well-known senator. Little material is given on or by women.

Despite the intent of the editors, this collection does leave some impressions serious and lasting in nature. Even the most impatient reformers among us would find some evidence of change surely for the better, though the bulk

of the material indicates a recurring attitude that the treasury of education has never been flush with effective teaching that made schools the bulwarks of democracy. But progress from the "no lickin', no learnin'" period is shown even though John Dewey's disciples are absent from the list. All in all, the book reveals that the profession has never written much about itself and that students who later write about education think more of the "old school tie" than of the joy of learning. Comparing the bibliography of teaching with that of medicine could cause one to conclude that the teaching profession is the only one that has its washing hung out on a public line to dry.

This book has in it, gathered literally from the ends of the earth, a wealth of material. However, it would seem to this reviewer that editorial freedom of action might not have been unduly restrained had the compilers yielded to the temptation to classify the material in some way. To go from Socrates' bitter hour, as told by Plato, to Hazlitt's advice to a spoiled child, required considerable shifting of mental gears, especially at the end of a hard day—teaching.

WALKER D. WYMAN

Wisconsin State Teachers College
River Falls, Wisconsin

Intercultural Attitudes in the Making. Edited by William Heard Kilpatrick and William Van Til. *Ninth Yearbook* of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. ix, 246. \$3.00.

This book, while addressed primarily to teachers and school officials, should be of value to all who work or deal actively with children and youth. It is the outgrowth of experiences of men and women—parents, teachers, and social workers—who have synthesized their materials under the excellent leadership of Dr. William Heard Kilpatrick and Dr. William Van Til. To those who are sensitive to the impact of the modern family, the church and the community in their classrooms, this study will be of tremendous help.

The first chapter, "Basic Principles in Intercultural Education," introduces the reader to a re-examination of our values and the methods of their acceptance. "Parents" is the theme of Chapter 2. Only as we know the home and how



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the family lives in it can we hope to find those who most need our help. Chapter 3, "The Primary Teacher," brings to us the thesis that children must be recognized as individuals and that within the group they must be seen as unique personalities not to be submerged by the pattern program. "Adult Sponsored Youth Groups," which follows, is a summation of the social agency-school approach to intercultural education. Chapter 5 emphasizes the comparison of economic, social, and cultural backgrounds in two typical junior high schools. Children growing from childhood to adolescence must have about them adults who are willing and capable to explore the discriminations and hostilities they observe. The chapter on "Gangs" gives a terrible indictment to the high school as meaningless, inflexible, and impersonal. Chapter 7, "The High School Teacher," supports this thesis and brings out (1) "For both the teacher and the student life begins at 3:30." and (2) "the new (curriculum) is struggling to be born and the old refuses to lie down and be buried." It suggests the program of the school be built on

needs, social realities, and a personal appraisal for living. Chapter 8 surveys "The School as a Whole"—the citizen, the board of education, the staff, the parents, and the students. It demonstrates the interplay of the activities of these groups and how they affect intercultural education.

Increasingly schools are taking the democratic mandate, for they realize that the atmosphere of democracy must pervade their programs if desirable intercultural attitudes are to be developed. However, choices must be made in each community by the local citizenry, the board of education, and the school personnel, for the program must grow from within. The *Yearbook* has kept faith with its namesake. Attitudes which shall remain as part of an individual or a group culture are those which are first experienced and lived. To all parents, to all teachers, to all Americans, this is the road toward civilization. I recommend this book as a challenge and a champion for the people. **ELMER A. LISSFELT**
Supervising Principal
Upper Moreland Schools

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Edited by R. T. SOLIS-COHEN
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Seven Rules of Clear Thinking. By Roy C. Bryan, assisted by Leonard Gernant, A. L. Sebaly, George E. Mills, Robert A. Bahlman. Kalamazoo, Mich.: Western State High School, a Unit of Western Michigan College, 1947. Pp. 78. \$1.25 for single copies; ten or more copies, \$1.00 each.

The authors believe that practice in solving problems is not enough. Pupils need practice in solving problems while getting practice in identifying those principles of clear thinking in accord with which reliable conclusions are reached. The authors define the seven rules of clear thinking as:

1. Prevent your feelings from dictating your thinking.
2. Suspend judgment until you are justified in reaching a conclusion.
3. Strive to identify assumptions.
4. Insist on adequate cross-section samples.
5. Beware of analogies.
6. Call for evidence of cause-effect relationships.
7. Organize your thoughts.

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OBJECTIVES and GOALS

The underlying objective of APPLIED ECONOMICS is to develop an effective understanding of basic principles of economics so that the student will be a more intelligent citizen, consumer, and wage earner. To accomplish these objectives, it is necessary to develop general economic intelligence.

One phase of developing economic intelligence is to point out some of the economic fallacies or mistakes. The author carefully avoids the purely theoretical problems of economics that only remotely affect the individual. However, the author does present very vividly the effects of some of the more important international problems of economics, such as those affecting money and exchange, the effects of tariffs on international trade, and the effects of world-wide cartels. These are all international problems which have a direct effect on every consumer, wage earner, and citizen. Therefore they have a place in this course.

Leadership in War and Peace. By Sanford Winston. The Agricultural Experiment Station of the North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering. Raleigh, N. C.: State College Station, September, 1946. Special Publication 1. Pp. 141.

This pamphlet is a report on the potentialities and the special contribution of the neighborhood leadership system to rural and national life. In this organization of leadership, the district, farm, and home agents work through and with neighborhood leaders in order to reach every family even in the most inaccessible rural sections. The neighborhood leaders counsel the agents concerning practical projects which would benefit their communities. The agents, in their turn, teach the leaders how to transmit information to the families in the groups which the leaders represent. Neighborhood leaders should be elected. They should adequately represent the group served with respect to race and sex. Leaders want explanations of the programs from agents at meetings scheduled according to the cycle of farm work—preferably when farm work is rel-

atively slack.

Leaders not only need plans prepared by the agents for the initiation of a program. They require constant and constructive follow-up to help them and their groups attain their goals. Information must be simple and easy to follow.

Thus the neighborhood leadership system is an agricultural extension program related to the everyday interests and activities of the people involved and able to reach families in the most inaccessible rural sections. Although these methods are derived from experiences in North Carolina, they are applicable to other parts of the country.

Atomic Challenge. By William A. Higinbotham and Ernest K. Lindley. Headline Series No. 63. May-June, 1947. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 64. 35 cents.

Control of atomic power requires modification of present political and social thought and action, and public understanding of the nature and social implications of atomic power.

This pamphlet attempts to explain in ex-



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tremely simple language the facts of atomic energy to the layman. In the first article, "Splitting the Atom," William A. Higinbotham, executive secretary of the Federation of American Scientists and a wartime electronics expert at Los Alamos, discusses the discovery of atomic fission, its nature, its applications and its implications. He supplies the elemental scientific facts and indicates the new problem for defense, scientific progress, and human welfare. For example, the only way to insure reducing damage from atomic attack would be to give up cities and spread people, industries and defenses around the countryside. This would not only be very expensive but would disrupt our economy, destroy civil and economic liberties, and encourage regimentation.

The second article "Harnessing the Atom" was written by Ernest K. Lindley, Chief of *Newsweek's* Washington Bureau. He makes a survey of the political struggle for international controls and explains the complexities of the inspection system, safeguards, the veto issue and general disarmament. Likewise he analyzes the positions of Baruch, Gromyko, the proponents of Article 51 of the U.N. Charter, and the advocates of world government now. Mr. Lindley points out that the attitude of the Soviet Union blocks the international control of atomic energy.

In this reviewer's opinion, the authors' explanations of the social implications of atomic power can be easily understood. However, certain of the scientific generalizations, though briefly expressed by the first author in the simplest language, seem to be beyond the grasp of a person who is neither a mathematician nor a physicist.

Swords of Peace. By Preston Slosson and Grayson Kirk. Headline Series No. 64. July-August, 1947. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 62. 35 cents.

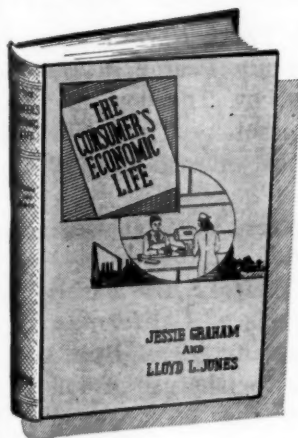
Disarmament and international policing are the subjects of the two articles contained in this pamphlet.

The first, "Problems of Disarmament," exposes the fallacies of some of the solutions which have been offered for ending armament rivalry. The author reviews critically previous attempts to reduce international arms and, in

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the present situation, discusses new elements in the problem, e.g., the atom bomb.

Instead of approaching the problem of security by way of disarmament, the author suggests reversing the sequence. Build up a strong international organization which will give the nations a feeling of relative safety. Then they may limit armaments in the interest of thrift.

In the second article, "Problems of International Policing," the schemes for establishing an international police force are evaluated as either too far-reaching to be acceptable to sovereign nations, or too weak to be practical in action. The U.N. policing system can be used at present only in non-great power quarrels provided that no great power comes to the aid of either party. However the U. N. can be effective in gradually building the groundwork for better international cooperation and a more effective police force.

School Patterns for Citizenship Training. Therald T. Herrick. Illustrations and Diagrams by Aarre K. Lahti. Ann Arbor, Michigan: School of Education, University of Michigan, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 130.

gan, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 130.

School Patterns for Citizenship Training is a report on the four aspects of training for citizenship: participation in student government, cooperation in activities designed for the improvement of community living, the use of subject-matter and techniques contributing to the objectives essential to good citizenship, and the employment of rating techniques.

The author emphasizes the aid that can be given by extracurricular activities and by communal opportunities to attaining citizenship goals.

Employment Outlook in Machine Shop Occupations. Occupational Outlook Series, Bulletin No. 895. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 28. 20 cents.

There will be job openings for veterans and other young people in machine shops for the next few years. The job prospects seem good because machine shops employ the largest group of skilled workers in manufacturing and pay better than average wages.

An apprenticeship is recommended as being the training course which will usually put the young person in the best position for preference in getting and keeping jobs, and for better chances of promotion to supervisory positions. Detailed information is given in the report on the duties and working conditions, training needed, job openings, and supply of qualified workers for the following machine shop occupations: machinists, tool and die makers, machine tool operators, set-up men and lay-out men.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

King's Man. By C. M. Edmondston and M. L. F. Hyde. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1948. Pp. 281. \$2.50.

An historical novel covering the reign of Henry, first of the Plantagenet line of kings, written for young people.

The History of Building the Constitution of the United States. By John R. Rood. Detroit Michigan: Detroit Law-Book Company, 1948. Pp. 189. \$3.00.

Abridged annotations on the origins of the provisions of the Constitution and the debates in the Convention. Large type is used.

The Future of the American Jew. By Mordecai M. Kaplan. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xx, 571. \$6.00.

A scholarly book discusses how the Jews can maintain their identity and at the same time share in the whole of society.

The American Way in Community Life. By Samuel Steinberg and Daniel C. Knowlton. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1948. Pp. 408. Illustrated. \$1.92.

A civics textbook.

Encyclopedia of Vocational Guidance. Edited by Oscar J. Kaplan. New York: The Philosophical Library, 1948. Volume I, pp. 722; Volume II, pp. 700, \$18.50.

The book has topics chosen from a master list and is intended mainly for professional counselors with limited library resources.

Studies of Children. Edited by Gladys Meyer. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948. Pp. 176. \$2.50.

The essays written by graduate students of the New York School of Social Work are based on direct observation of children and their parents.

Social Problems on the Home Front. By Francis E. Merrill. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Pp. x, 258. \$3.50.

A study of social problems resulting from World War II.

Frontier Parsonage. The Letters of Olaus Fredrik Duus, Norwegian Pastor in Wisconsin, 1855-1858. Edited by Theodore C. Blegen. Northfield, Minnesota: The Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1947. Pp. 120. \$2.50.

Translations of letters by a Norwegian minister sent to his home.

The Child and His Welfare. By Hazel Fredericksen. San Francisco, California: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1948. Pp. 318.

Written primarily for the use of college and university students, the book suggests approaches for child guidance.

We, the Citizens: Senior Problems in Civic Responsibilities. By Julian C. Aldrich and Marlow A. Markert. New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. 254. \$2.75.

The text, presenting an activity program for developing civic participation and responsibility, is recommended for the eleventh and twelfth grade social studies sequence.

The British Post Office: A History. By Howard Robinson. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1948. Pp. 467. \$7.50.

A scholarly and comprehensive history of the postal advances made in Britain during the past three centuries.

Experimental Designs in Sociological Research. By F. Stuart Chapin. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. 206. \$3.00.

Has reports on nine experimental studies in human relations.

Teaching High School History and Social Studies for Citizenship Training. By Charles C. Peters. Coral Gables, Florida: The University of Miami, 1948. Pp. 192. \$1.00.

A report on the Miami Experiment in democratic, action-centered education.

Financial Planning for the Individual and Family. By Neva Henrietta Radell. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1948. Pp. 207. \$2.50.

Written primarily as a text for college students, the book gives practical information on the wise handling of finances. A Record Book and Workbook go with it.